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ABSTRACT

Developments in vocational education and training (VET) in Tanzania and Zimbabwe since the 1980s were examined in the context of economic reform. Formal VET provision in each country's public and private sectors was reviewed, and case studies of one firm in each country's manufacturing and tourism industries were conducted. The research identified important changes in Tanzania's and Zimbabwe's VET systems since the start of economic reforms. Tanzania's fiscal crisis has forced pubic sector training institutions to commercialize their training activities. Although Tanzania has made very significant progress in adjusting its VET system to meet the major skill requirements of a rapidly liberalizing economy, economic liberalization has not resulted in the creation of an effective and efficient demand-driven VET system in either Tanzania or Zimbabwe. Unlike the situation in Tanzania, the government in Zimbabwe has not relinquished its tight control over the VET system. Public sector VET there remains supply-driven because of government control of training resources, little involvement of key stakeholders, and massive social demand for postsecondary VET. The following are among the actions required in both countries: (1) create a properly functioning national training agency whose governance and planning structures can respond to the training needs of their main economic sectors; (2) accelerate the pace of organizational reform among public sector training institutions; (3) reform the existing VET qualification and accreditation systems; and (4) establish a coherent strategy for VET for the poor and disadvantaged. (Sixty-eight tables/figures are included. Contains 10 references.) (MN)

DFID Department for International Development

Report

ED 431 902

EDUCATION RESEARCH

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN TANZANIA AND ZIMBABWE IN THE CONTEXT OF ECONOMIC REFORM

Paul Bennell, Shane Bendera, Godfrey Kanyenze, Emrode Kimambo, Sixtus Kiwia, Tichafa Mhiripiri-Kahiya, Faustin Mukyanuzi, N. Munetsi, Jo Muzaliu, Willy Parsalaw, John Temu

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This report is dedicated

to the memory of

Dr Willy Parsalaw

1955 - 1997

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 VET and Adjustment

It is now widely accepted that successful long-run development in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) will require significant improvements both in basic education and in technical and managerial skills in all sectors of the economy. In particular, major increases in labour productivity in tradable goods and service sectors are essential to achieve and sustain international competitiveness. However, while there is a general consensus that governments should take primary responsibility for the funding and provision of basic education, no such consensus exists concerning the role of government with respect to vocational education and training (VET). An important factor aggravating this lack of consensus is the paucity of recent, detailed empirical research on VET in Africa.

There has long been widespread disenchantment with training provision by government institutions in SSA. Until the early-mid 1980s, the main criticism of VET was that it was generally poorly related to (effective) demands for skills among producers. Not only was VET provision "overextended" but it tended to be biased towards particular sectors (central government, parastatals, and manufacturing) and groups (young, urban-based males in high-middle level occupations). Typically, public sector training was poorly planned, managed, and resourced (particularly with respect to trainers and training materials) resulting in poor quality but high cost provision often with limited skills utilisation among trainees once in employment. In addition, seriously distorted labour markets adversely affected training incentives facing both individuals and enterprises and organisations. (See Blaug, 1981; Bennell, 1984; Bennell, 1991; King, 1976).

Since the late 1980s, there are clear indications that the impetus for reform of VET provision has increased markedly in Africa, in particular with the advent of comprehensive structural adjustment programmes and as donor support for VET has declined. However, there is an acute shortage of hard evidence about how VET policies and provision have changed during the last decade. Given this lack of information, it was decided to look in detail at VET provision since the mid-late 1980s in two African countries, namely Tanzania and Zimbabwe. The Tanzanian research project was funded by the Education Division of the Department for International Development (DFID) while the Zimbabwe study was supported by DFID's Economic and Social Committee for Research (ESCOR).

This report summarises the main findings of the Tanzanian and Zimbabwe studies. Four sets of questions have underpinned this research:

- Since the start of the economic reform process, how have the governments of Tanzania and Zimbabwe attempted to reverse the previously ineffective and inefficient patterns of VET provision and facilitate the formation of skills necessary for successful adjustment and

sustainable long-term economic growth?

- What have been the main outcomes and impacts of government policy reforms and other actions;?
- What are the reasons for these outcomes and impacts?;
- What changes in policy are still required to improve outcomes in future?

The research project covered all types of post-secondary VET provision including pre-employment occupational training mainly targeted at secondary school leavers and job-related training for those already employed. While technical colleges and polytechnics were included, universities were not.

1.2 The VET Policy Debate

In addressing these questions, the study has focused on the extent to which attempts have been made to change VET provision in Tanzania and Zimbabwe from being essentially supply-driven to demand-driven so that it responds more efficiently and effectively to the training needs of both individuals and enterprises and other organisations. As with many other areas of economic reform, the World Bank has been at the forefront of efforts to reform VET provision in SSA. More specifically, since the late 1980s, the World Bank has consistently advocated the adoption of a package of market-driven VET reforms. In broad terms, "the challenge is to move from policies dominated by social and supply objectives and programs funded and provided by governments to policies and programs that respond to market forces and promote employer and private training, and establish appropriate complementary and supportive roles for the state" (van Adams et al, 1993: 253). Similarly, the Bank's 1995 Education Sector Review states that VET is "generally best provided on-the-job by employers" (World Bank 1995:108). While the shift away from off-the-job, publicly provided VET to on-the-job enterprise training is the most emphasised policy recommendation, the other main components of the Bank's VET reform package include:

- focusing on the training needs of farmers (particularly smallholders), other labour intensive exporters, small-scale enterprises, the poor, and women.
- closely linking VET to labour market needs and enhancing labour productivity through the restructuring of labour markets, adoption of new planning methodologies, and new governance and consultation structures based on social partnerships among the major stakeholders.
- a greater emphasis on improvements in training quality rather than quantity.
- a much enlarged role for the private sector and generally much greater diversity of training provision.

- leaner, better managed and more innovative public sector provision that "fills the gaps" left by the private sector.

- learning from foreigners, in particular by the encouragement of foreign corporate investment.

- increased cost recovery and mobilisation of additional resources.

- reduced donor involvement that is limited to clearly identified labour market needs in priority areas.

Since the early 1980s, World Bank support for post-secondary vocational education has fallen from almost 20 per cent of total lending to the education sector to less than 5 per cent. Most donors have followed the lead of the World Bank and have also significantly reduced their funding of formal VET in SSA. Given that many African governments have become heavily dependent on donor support for VET, the reduction in donor support for VET is likely to have intensified the need to make far reaching policy adjustments with respect to public sector training provision .

Critics of the World Bank's market-driven VET reform strategy argue that it places too much emphasis on the role of improved incentives in stimulating supply responses and pays insufficient attention to the conditions necessary for producers to respond to changes in incentives. As Pack points out, "without an increase in proficiency, the responsiveness of output even to the best designed structural adjustment programme is likely to be limited. Prices are one half of a scissor, the other being technical skill" (Pack, 1992:1). More serious still, adjustment may undermine the capacity of the state to formulate and implement key reforms and/or provide skills training in critically important areas. In particular, fiscal belt-tightening often takes its greatest toll on public investment. Given the close links between new investment, skill acquisition and learning by doing, policies that lower investment levels can "drive the economy to a new steady state in which physical and human capital stocks are lower and underemployment is higher" (Buffie, 1994:267). If this is the case, the overall impact on the VET system is likely to be negative.

1.3 Research Hypotheses

Both the Tanzania and Zimbabwe country studies have tested two related hypotheses:

- Since the mid-late 1980s, there has been a deterioration in the provision of formal (i.e. off-the-job) VET in key areas of skills formation that are critical to the long term development process in each country.

- Economic liberalisation is a necessary but not sufficient condition for achieving the required levels of skills training in each country. Private sector training institutions and on-the-job training by enterprises are playing increasingly important roles, but wide ranging state interventions are still essential for the effective development of workforce skills that are

necessary for successful development. These include the development of an overall policy framework for VET as well as the provision of VET by public sector training institutions.

Comprehensive structural adjustment and/or stabilisation programmes provide the overall macroeconomic context for the assessment of VET provision and policy reform in most African countries since the mid-late 1980s, including Tanzania and Zimbabwe. Certainly, economic liberalisation can increase the incentives for individuals, households, and enterprises to enhance labour productivity in order to compete effectively on local and international markets. However, the effective demand for and/or the capacity to supply the VET necessary for this process of skills upgrading could be adversely affected by a number of factors. Most important among these are: the impact of fiscal belt-tightening on public VET institutions (especially their ability to respond to new priority areas of VET, most notably among small-medium enterprises in the formal sector and micro enterprises in the informal sector); the negative training response of surviving public and private enterprises now faced with 'harder budgets' and possibly lower levels of profitability (training is often one of the first expenditures to be cut); lower levels of wage employment with mass retrenchments (resulting in fewer opportunities for work-based VET and learning by doing and the erosion of the skills of laid-off workers); generally lower real wages but increased cost recovery thus reducing the returns to investments in human capital; greater uncertainty which depresses all types of investment including human capital; much reduced funding from aid donors which in the past have heavily supported VET; the reluctance and/or inability of farmers to make investments in new technologies that require the acquisition of new/improved skills; and the impact of adjustment on micro enterprises in the informal sector (the limited evidence that is available suggests that, to date, this has tended to be negative).

While accepting that changes in the policy environment at both macro and sectoral levels could have far reaching effects on VET provision, there are other sets of factors that also need to be investigated that are not directly related to adjustment policies. Most notably, these include: (i) the voluntary implementation by African governments of VET reforms (including all or some of those being proposed by the World Bank); (ii) the withdrawal and reduction of donor funding for VET; and (iii) adverse economic shocks, external and internal.

1.4 Methodology

Given the intractability of the methodological problems involved in trying to assess what would have happened to VET provision without adjustment, no attempt has been made at a detailed counterfactual assessment of the impact of adjustment policies on VET. However, both studies have tried to examine the full range of factors (including adjustment and stabilisation policies) that may have influenced VET provision since the mid 1980s.

Each country study comprises of two distinct but related parts: an overview of formal VET provision in the public and private sectors and two industry case studies.

1.4.1 Formal VET Provision

The main objective of the study is to identify the main changes (both quantitative and qualitative) in the provision of formal, off-the-job VET by both public and private training institutions for the country as a whole since the mid-late 1980s and to analyse the main factors that have influenced this process of adjustment by the VET system itself. Particular attention has been given to assessing the impact of VET policy reforms. These can be categorised as follows:

- Improving fiscal and macroeconomic stability (better targeting of VET resources, cost containment, and mobilisation of additional resources);
- Building training markets (improving consumer choice, incentives, and internal competition);
- Regulating training markets (better training standards and accreditation, more equitable access);
- Strengthening institutional capacity to implement reforms (new planning methodologies, improved organisation and management).

Given the paucity of secondary data on public and private sector VET provision in Tanzania and Zimbabwe, it was necessary to undertake surveys of both sets of institutions. The public sector survey was divided into two parts: (i) Artisan and technician training. In Tanzania, this is the responsibility of the newly created Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA) which is an autonomous agency within the Ministry of Labour. In Zimbabwe, the two polytechnics and eight technical colleges under the Ministry of Higher Education provide this type of training; (ii) Pre-employment and in-service VET that is provided by other ministries. A survey of VET in eight of the most important ministries in each country was undertaken.

1.4.2 Industry Case Studies

Surveys were also undertaken of VET policies and practices in two key industries, namely manufacturing and tourism in order to assess the demand for skills training by enterprises and individuals as well as the provision of both on- and off-the-job training. These two industries were selected because they cover a wide range of skilled occupations and both produce tradable goods and services thus allowing an assessment to be made of the impact of trade liberalisation on the demand for and supply of skills training. In addition, tourism is both resource-based and relatively labour intensive. International competition in the tourism industry is intense, but it is one of the few export-oriented industries in SSA (outside of agriculture and mining) which has considerable potential for further development.

1.5 The Study Teams

Dr. Paul Bennell, Fellow, Institute of Development Studies at the University of Sussex, Brighton, UK was the overall coordinator of this project. Teams of researchers from each country undertook the surveys and wrote individual reports.

Tanzania Team

Mr Shane Bendera, Director, Division of Industries, Planning Commission, Dar Es Salaam

Mr Emrode Kimambo, Lecturer, Cooperative College, Moshi.

Dr. Sixtus Kiwia, Senior Lecturer, Faculty of Education, University of Dar Es Salaam.

Dr Faustin Mukyanuzi, Consultant, HR-Consult, Dar Es Salaam.

Dr. Willy Parsalaw, Lecturer, Cooperative College, Moshi

Mr. John Temu, Head, Field Research Unit, Cooperative College, Moshi.

Very sadly, Dr. Parsalaw, who was the country coordinator for the project, passed away in September 1997.

Zimbabwe Team

Dr Godfrey Kanyenze, Economist, Zimbabwe Congress of Trades Unions

Mr Tichafa Mbiriyakura, Independent Consultant.

Mr N. Munetsi, Assistant Director Vocational Education and Training, Ministry of Higher Education

Dr Jo Muzulu, Chief Economist, Finhold Ltd.

In total, over 200 training managers and policymakers were interviewed in each country. We gratefully acknowledge the excellent assistance given by these individuals to the research team. One day dissemination workshops were held in Harare in January 1998 and in Dar Es Salaam in April 1998 each of which was attended by over 50 individuals from both the public and private sector. These workshops provided the opportunity to discuss the main results and recommendations of the research project and enabled key stakeholders in the VET system to provide feedback on the research.

1.6 Structure of the Report

Chapters 2 to 6 summarise the key findings of the five surveys. Each chapter presents the main survey results for each country in turn. Possible VET reforms which would address some of the most serious weaknesses in VET provision are discussed in Chapter 7. Some of these are common to each country, but others are country specific.

CHAPTER 2

TECHNICIAN AND ARTISAN TRAINING

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the main changes that have occurred in pre-employment artisan and technician training in both countries. In Tanzania, artisan and other skilled worker training has mainly been the responsibility of the National Vocational Training Division (NVTD) in the Ministry of Labour and Manpower Development which was established in 1974 under the provisions of the 1972 Vocational Training Act. Although never explicitly spelt out, the organisational mandate of the NVTD was to train school leavers to become artisans and other skilled workers in sufficient numbers to meet the skill requirements for rapid industrial development in the formal sector. The training needs for occupations employed elsewhere in the formal and informal sectors were to be met by other, predominantly public sector institutions.

A network of NVTD training centres was rapidly developed during the next ten years with very considerable donor support, in particular from the Danish, Swedish and Swiss governments. By 1987, there were 11 National Vocational Training Centres (NVTCs) offering training in 30 or so main manual 'trades', the most important in numerical terms being motor vehicle mechanics, fitting and turning, welding and blacksmithing, electrical installation, carpentry, and tailoring. The five largest NVTCs (Chang'ombe in Dar Es Salaam, Dodoma, Mwanza, Moshi and Tanga) accounted for over 80 per cent of enrolments.

For a variety of reasons which will be discussed in the first part of this chapter, both the internal and external efficiency of NVTD training remained low throughout the 20 years of its existence. By the 1990s, the main donor agencies upon whom NVTD had become heavily dependent (in particular, DANIDA and SIDA) indicated that they would only be prepared to continue to support the NVTD if organisational, financial and management reforms were introduced that would bring about major improvements in operational efficiency, increase the relevance of the training provided, and generate adequate and sustained funding from national sources. External and local consultants were appointed and a review was undertaken in 1992. The main recommendations of this review were subsequently incorporated into the 1994 Vocational Education and Training Act which established the Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA) to replace NVTD. Freed from direct government control and with its own independent source of funding, the overall objective of the 1994 Act is to create an efficient, demand-driven national training system capable of responding quickly to the needs of the labour market.

VETA only became operational in January 1995 so at the time the research for this chapter was undertaken in late 1996 – early 1997, it was too early to evaluate whether this major reform of a core part of the vocational training system in Tanzania has been able to reverse the unsuccessful training record of its predecessor, the NVTD. However, an assessment can still be

made of the design of the various elements of the reform package along with an analysis of the prospects for their successful implementation. This will be presented in the second part of this chapter.

In Zimbabwe, the Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) is responsible for the bulk of artisan, skilled worker and technician training. While its training mandate is, therefore, somewhat wider than that of NVTD/VETA in Tanzania, the position of the MOHE in the overall training system in Zimbabwe is broadly similar. In particular, it funds and manages ten polytechnics and technical colleges, two vocational training centres and is responsible for the overall planning of VET in the country as a whole. It is also administers the training levy-grant scheme.

In marked contrast with the major reforms in the funding, organisation and management of artisan training in Tanzania, there have been only relatively minor changes in MOHE training provision during the 1990s. The experiences of these two organisations provide, therefore, an interesting case study of the underlying factors that have shaped the processes of institutional reform in each country.

2.2 TANZANIA: FROM NVTD TO VETA

2.2.1 NVTD: The First Decade

Type of training provision: The NVTD provided artisan training in the industrial trades to two main clienteles, namely, pre-service training to school leavers and in-service training to those who were already employed. For the school leaver group, a traditional apprenticeship model was adopted with students initially attending VTCs for one year of full time basic theoretical and practical training followed by usually three years of on-the-job training. During this latter period, students were to be formally indentured as apprentices to the sponsoring enterprise and, on successful completion of their training, were to receive a Certificate of Apprenticeship. Apprentices and other workers wanting to take Trade Tests which were administered by NVTD attended evening classes at the VTCs. It was a formal requirement that the three Trade Tests (III to I) had to be taken sequentially.

While the need for short term training courses was recognised by policymakers and NVTD management, the actual provision of this type of training remained very limited throughout this period. This was mainly because the main concern was to build up pre-service training capacity as this was regarded as the core objective of the VTCs. Similarly, politicians and senior policymakers were preoccupied with increasing the overall number of skilled workers in order to fulfil ambitious industrial development goals.

With limited opportunities for post-school training coupled with reasonable prospects of finding appropriate wage employment once training had been completed (at least during the 1970s), competition for the limited number of training places on the Basic Training courses at the VTCs was intense. This tended to favour better educated students from relatively privileged socio-economic backgrounds. Furthermore, given the preponderance of traditional manual trades, over three-quarters of both basic training and evening class students were males.

Broadly speaking, NVTD training was confined to a limited range of traditional, male dominated artisan trades and was primarily oriented to meeting the needs of formal sector enterprises, particularly in the manufacturing sector.

Organisation and Planning: As part of the Ministry of Labour and Manpower Development, the NVTD was directly under the authority of the Minister, was administered according to the same rules and regulations as for all government departments, and was entirely reliant on government in conjunction with donors for all its funding requirements. The 1972 Vocational Training Act did establish a National Vocational Training Council which was to act as an advisory body and encourage the involvement of all key stakeholders. In practice, decision making power was highly centralised in the office of the Director of the NVTD who was directly answerable to the Minister. Membership of the NVTC was dominated by officials from other government ministries and its role remained marginal. Trade Advisory Committees were also established to assist in the development of trade curricula, but again the involvement of industry remained limited.

Planning was based on the standard 'manpower requirements approach' which was the dominant methodology in developing countries during the 1970s. A 20 year manpower training planning was published in 1981 which estimated that there were was an annual average shortfall of upwards of 60,000 artisans/skilled workers per year during the period. To ensure that the NVTD played its part in the national training effort, government policy was that there should eventually be a VTC in each district. This plan was seriously flawed mainly because no serious attempt was made to ascertain prevailing labour market demands for both pre- and in-service training. The whole process was top-down and highly centralised. Once training capacities in specific trades at individual VTCs had been established, training provision became essentially supply-driven.

2.2.2 NVTD Performance in the Context of Adjustment, 1986-1994

Attempted reforms: During the late 1980s, various efforts were made to improve the performance of NVTD. Most notable among these were: (i) making attendance at evening classes at NVTCs or other registered training institutions a prerequisite for trade test candidates; (ii) increasing the period of basic training from one to two years for a number of trades so as to improve the acceptability of NVTD graduates to industry; (iii) improving the quality of NVTC instructors by providing structured in-service training, in particular at the Morogoro Vocational Teachers Training College; and (iv) concentrating more on skills training for rural development and the informal sector. However, taken together, these reforms had little impact in improving either the relevance, quality or quantity of training outputs from NVTD nor was there any significant increase in the overall efficiency of the training process. Both planning and management remained highly centralised at NVTD head office.

Funding and Resource Management: A key reason for this continued deterioration in organisational performance was that recurrent funding for NVTD's growing network of training centres declined rapidly after the start of the economic reform programme in 1986 as government was put under increasing pressure (mainly by the World Bank and the International

Monetary Fund) to reduce the overall size of the budget deficit. Table 2.1 shows that, in real terms, recurrent funding plummeted from 1988/89 onwards and that most of the development budget was being met by donor agencies by 1995.

Table 2.1 : NVTD recurrent and development budgets for 1985/86 - 1994/95 (T.Sh millions, 1990 prices)

	85/86	86/87	87/88	88/89	89/90	90/91	91/92	92/93	93/94	94/95
Recurrent	357.1	369.4	380.6	339.4	248.6	235.8	212.9	200.0	180.1	165.0
Development										
Local	272.6	212.1	171.0	101.9	62.7	62.0	94.3	106.7	66.5	32.7
Foreign	1053.6	926.2	746.3	522.5	373.9	727.9	493.6	1701.3	2526.4	2685.1

Source: VETA

Management capacity at both head office and the NVTCs remained weak (particularly in the areas of statistics, financial analysis, procurement and inventory control of equipment and materials). Costly, donor-funded management training programmes made virtually no impact. With the real value of salaries and wages falling by over a half between 1990 and 1994, staff motivation was seriously affected and most NVTD instructors and support personnel were forced to look for additional secondary incomes which further undermined productivity. Unable to dismiss or retrench staff, already very low instructor-student ratios in most trades fell still further as full time and evening class enrolments stagnated and/or fell from the late 1980s onwards (see below).

Enrolments: The number of students doing basic training increased quite significantly during the late 1980s mainly as the result of new NVTCs becoming operational. Full time students increased from 2084 in 1987 to 2712 in 1989. However, during the 1990s, enrolments stagnated and by 1996 had fallen to 2523. During the same period, the number of students enrolled in evening classes appears to have fallen precipitously. Reliable statistics for all NVTCs could not be obtained so data are only available from the three centres that were visited as part of this study. In 1987, Chang'ombe VTC had 7170 evening students (nearly two-thirds of the NVTD total). By 1990-91, this figure had fallen to 3573 and during 1995-96 there were, on average, only 1435 evening class students. At Mwanza VTC, enrolments fell from 406 in 1990-91 to 152 in 1996 and at Tanga VTC from 355 to 316 during this period. All trades were affected.

There are a number of likely reasons for this pervasive decline in the number of evening class students. On the demand side, the credibility of trade tests among both employers and individuals continued to decline at a time when formal wage employment opportunities also shrank dramatically. The limited demand for trade test certification in the informal sector discouraged individuals from taking these tests.

Apprenticeships and Industrial Attachments: The proportion of NVTD students who completed their basic training and were able to either become indentured apprentices or find industrial attachments plummeted during the 1990s. As can be observed in Table 2.2, whereas approximately three-quarters of these students were receiving on-the-job training in 1990, this figure was barely 10 per cent in 1995. With no financial incentives on offer to encourage enterprises to train NVTD students, it seems clear that, during the 1990s, when most industrial enterprises have been severely affected by trade liberalisation and other adjustment policies, the large majority have simply dispensed altogether with formal pre-employment training for artisans.

Table 2.2 : Incidence of VTC students undertaking industrial placements, 1990-95

Year	Total students	Total placements	Contracts of Apprenticeship	Placements as per cent of total	Apprenticeships as per cent of total
1987	2084	-	-	-	-
1990	2774	1850	295	66.7	10.6
1993	2681	650	50	24.2	1.9
1995	2523	260	45	10.3	1.8

Source: VETA records

The poor quality of the on job training received by NVTD students is also reflected in the relatively very small number of NVTD students who take the Trade Test I examination in the normal prescribed time. The files of 100 randomly selected students equally divided among five major trades at Chang'ombe VTC who completed their basic training in 1989 and 1991 were scrutinised. In Table 2.3, it can be observed that over 90 per cent of students from both cohorts had attempted Trade Test II within two years of completing basic training. However, among the 1989 cohort, only 10-25 per cent took the Trade Test I on time at the end of what is supposed to be a four year training period. By 1995, two years after the time they should have completed their training, 20-40 per cent of the 1989 cohort had still not sat for Trade Test I. Among the 1991 cohort of basic training graduates, significantly higher proportions of students attempted Trade Test I on time compared to the 1989 cohort of basic training graduates. Just why this improvement occurred is not entirely clear, but it may be because of appreciable differences in the educational attainments of trainees prior to joining NVTD.

Table 2.3 : NVTD basic training graduates attempting Trade Tests II and I in normal prescribed time in selected trades, 1989 and 1991 intakes

	1989 cohort						1991 cohort			
	II			I			II		I	
	on time	1 year late	by 1995	on time	1 year late	by 1995	on time	1 year late	on time	1 year late
Electrical installation	65	95	100	15	40	75	65	90	35	70
Motor mechanic	75	100	100	20	40	80	70	90	35	80
Tailoring	40	75	100	10	35	60	60	95	15	65
Carpentry	60	95	100	25	55	70	55	80	25	65

Source: VETA student records

Trade Tests: Table 2.4 shows the number of trade test candidates and pass rates for Trade Tests III-I for seven major trades for 1990 and 1995. Precise data were not available, but approximately two thirds of all individuals taking trade tests during this period were from other training institutions besides NVTD. It can be observed that: (i) the number of individuals attempting these trade tests, with the exception of electrical installation, fell very significantly between 1990 and 1995; (ii) Pass rates were generally quite low - in the range of 30-60 per cent for all three trade tests; (iii) Rates of progression between Trade Test III and I were very low. Typically, only 15-20 per cent of (i.e. 1 out of every 5-6) Trade Test III candidates attempted and passed Trade Test II and this fell to just 1-5 per cent for Trade Test I. The worst example is tailoring where, in both 1990 and 1995, the number of Trade Test I passes was a mere 1 per cent of the total number of Trade Test III candidates.

2.2.3 The Establishment of VETA

The 1994 Vocational Education and Training Act: The overall objective of the 1994 Vocational Education and Training Act is to provide "a legal framework for the implementation of a flexible vocational education and training system capable of responding quickly to the needs of the labour market" (VETA, 1996). The three key features of this new framework are the creation of VETA as an autonomous government agency with its own Board exercising overall executive authority, the introduction of a training levy of two per cent of gross payroll for all enterprises with four or more employees, and greater decentralisation with the establishment of Regional VET Boards responsible for planning and provision of vocational training at the regional level and the devolution of most operational management responsibilities onto Regional Vocational Training and Service Centres.

Table 2.4 : Trade test candidates and pass rates in selected trades, 1990 and 1995

Trade	Test level	1990 Number sat	1990 Number pass	1990 per cent pass	1990 Completion index [a]	1995 Number sat	1995 Number pass	1995 per cent pass	1995 Completion rate	per cent chan 1990-95
Motor vehicle	III	2238	1018	45	45	2361	1193	51	51	5.5
	II	810	497	61	22	654	323	49	14	-19.3
	I	251	105	42	5	222	131	59	6	-11.6
Fitter mechanic	III	371	180	49	49	96	64	67	67	-74.1
	II	187	89	48	24	69	37	53	38	-63.1
	I	95	60	63	16	29	15	52	16	-69.5
Welder blacksmith	III	608	248	41	41	349	145	42	42	-42.6
	II	207	103	50	17	132	62	47	18	-36.2
	I	87	14	16	2	40	17	42	5	-54.0
Masonry bricklaying	III	1049	469	45	45	593	314	53	53	-43.5
	II	247	169	68	16	235	124	53	21	-4.9
	I	125	70	56	7	58	830	51	5	-53.6
Tailoring	III	926	306	33	33	973	399	41	41	5.0
	II	150	95	63	10	133	83	62	9	-11.3
	I	36	12	33	1	21	11	52	1	-41.7
Carpentry	III	1468	718	49	49	852	617	72	72	-42.0
	II	460	241	52	16	285	134	47	16	-38.0
	I	121	36	30	2	69	34	49	4	-43.0
Electrical installation	III	1135	563	50	50	1660	920	55	55	46.3
	II	512	387	76	34	630	302	48	18	23.0
	I	229	125	55	11	245	111	45	7	7.0

Source: VETA

Notes: The completion index is the number of Trade Test I passes expressed as a percentage of the number of candidates who sat Trade Test III in the same year.

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A Strategic Action Plan (Phase I) for VETA for the period 1996-1999 focuses on five main 'development components', namely institutional structures and management systems, the establishment of Regional Boards and eight core Regional Vocational Training and Service Centres, development of the training system itself (including a new system of modular training and testing and certification, up-grading of the Morogoro Vocational Teachers Training College), and 'key general components', most notably improved gender balance on VETA training courses and increased emphasis on entrepreneurship training.

Strengths of the VET Act: The 1994 Act contains a number of positive features that should result in some improvement in the efficiency and effectiveness of training provision. In particular, organisational and financial independence will enable a VETA to provide better quality training. Task-oriented management systems are being introduced. Comprehensive staffing reviews both at the centre and in the regions are expected to result in a smaller, more able and better motivated cadre of instructors and support staff. In real terms, salaries are to be at least tripled.

After only two years of operation, it was clear that some tangible improvements had already been achieved. The 20 NVTC respondents interviewed for this study were asked to rate the extent to which key aspects of training provision had changed since 1990. As can be observed in Tables 2.5 and 2.6, at least half stated that the quality of instructors, the number of contact hours and the ability to dismiss poor performers had 'improved' and that there had been 'limited change' with respect to training priorities, content of training and teaching techniques.

By early 1998, VETA management had started to make concerted efforts to ensure that training provided by VTCs becomes more demand driven. In particular, labour demand surveys were carried out in all eight regions during 1997 in order to assess training needs of both formal and informal sector enterprises in all sectors. New modular-based training is also being slowly introduced that covers both technical/manual and entrepreneurial/commercial skills. There is a clear recognition that traditional long, pre-employment artisan training must be increasingly replaced by short-term training that is targeted on training needs of workers already in employment. However, three and a half years after its creation, actual progress made by VETA in reorienting its training provision remains limited. While the reason for this slow progress are not entirely clear, management shortcomings have undoubtedly been a major factor. The director of VETA was dismissed by the Minister of Labour in June 1997 and a successor had still not been appointed by May 1998. Similarly, meetings of the VETA Board have been very infrequent, particularly during 1997

Weaknesses of the VET Act: According to the VET Act, VETA has a comprehensive national mandate for VET in Tanzania. However, in practice, the main weakness of the new organisational arrangements is that there is no clear separation between VETA's roles as regulator and financier of VET, on the one hand, and actual training provision on the other. The widespread perception among industry is that the sole beneficiaries of the Act are the erstwhile NVTC training centres who will receive most of the training levy for the foreseeable future. While it is clearly possible for VETA training centres to modify their courses offerings to some extent, the fact remains that these centres are intended primarily for artisan and skill worker training. It is, therefore, neither desirable nor feasible that they should attempt to cover all the areas of skills training required by all enterprises in Tanzania. As will be discussed in Chapter 4, private sector training institutions are

already providing a whole range of commercial and computing courses and, in addition, specialist training organisations already exist that cater for specialist training needs of specific industries (e.g. tourism, mining, agriculture).

In total, VETA training centres enrol less then 10 per cent of all VET students. If VETA is, therefore, to be a genuine national training agency it needs to be separated from the Ministry of Labour's training centres and plan and fund VET in accordance with the training needs of all categories of personnel (from senior managers in the largest formal sector enterprises to one person microenterprises) right across the economy.

Table 2.5 : Respondent assessment of extent of change in the planning and quality of training inputs since 1990 (percentages)

Change in	Deteriorated significantly	Deteriorated	No change	Improved	Improved significantly
Employer involvement	0	20	80	0	0
Student industrial attachments	5	85	5	5	0
Student intake quality	0	5	20	70	5
Planning capacity	0	0	70	30	0
Quality of management	0	0	55	45	0
Quality of instructors	0	0	15	80	5
Motivation of instructors	0	10	60	30	0
Number of contact hours	0	0	10	90	0
Ability to dismiss poor performers	0	0	10	85	5

The results of the labour demand surveys undertaken by VETA have still not been published. However, our research indicates that the pattern of skills training required by enterprises in Tanzania is much the same as for similar types of enterprises elsewhere in the world. More specifically, enterprise demand for workforce training can be subdivided into two main types: (i) technical and managerial/supervisory skill requirements for all occupations that are largely sector-specific e.g. mining, tourism, financial services, utilities; and (ii) general, mainly short term training in core areas of competence that are needed across all sectors, in particular accountancy,

marketing, personnel management, computing, and secretarial. Because VETA can only realistically provide a small fraction of this training, its own training courses are likely to remain of limited interest for the majority of enterprises (especially those with more specialist training needs in the formal sector).

As with the old NVTD organisation structure, the 1994 Act stipulates that Trade Advisory Committees 'may be established in respect of such industry, trade or occupation as the Board may determine'. In the past, these committees have, as their name suggests, been mainly concerned with a fairly narrow range of trades. It is clear, however, that a demand-driven training system must be based on organisational arrangements where, collectively, employers in each major economic sector are able to identify their own training requirements and have effective control over available resources to meet at least a significant proportion of these training needs. While it is possible for TACs for specific sectors or industries to be established under the Act, as currently constituted, they will almost certainly not have sufficient status and authority and will therefore not encourage any real sense of ownership and hence interest by most employers.

Table 2.6 : Respondent assessment of changes in training provision since 1990

Change in	No change	Limited change	Major change
Training priorities	30	70	0
Content of training	40	50	10
Teaching techniques	30	65	5

Even with its fairly narrow, de facto training mandate, the governance of VETA at both national and regional levels does not give sufficient representation to employers and 'for profit' training institutions so as to ensure that decisions about training priorities and resource allocations are demand-driven. With eight out of 10 members of the VETA Board from ministries (3), trade unions (2), and 'NGOs which manage VET institutions' (3), it is likely that VETA will continue to be strongly supply-driven. Again, unless employers have a greater degree of control over the training process, there is unlikely to be any real sense of ownership and commitment in making the new system work.

One of the principal arguments in support for the introduction of the training levy was that it would 'enhance participation and accountability' (SAP, pp.4) among contributing employers. However, given that VETA training centres will be able to provide only a relatively small proportion of the training that is needed, it is unlikely that this objective can be achieved. With over 90 per cent of the training levy income to be allocated to VETA's own training centres until at least 2000, hardly any funding will be available that could be used to support other kinds of training. Faced with this situation, most enterprises regard the training levy as just another tax that, moreover, is to be used to continue to support a set of training institutions that have little or no relevance to their actual training needs. It is not surprising to find, therefore, that in 1996 only 23 per cent of the 12,000

liable enterprises were paying the VETA levy. The fact also that only 10 per cent of basic training students are able to find industrial placements is indicative of VETA's isolation from employers.

VETA is expected to introduce entirely new 'task-oriented' management systems that will lead to significant improvements in efficiency. Experience from other countries, suggests, however, that, on their own, these kind of management reforms are unlikely to achieve the desired outcomes in relation to organisational performance. More specifically, more powerful external incentives are necessary in order to compel public sector training organisations to either meet certain objectives or face the prospect of having to reduce their training activities or even close down altogether. But, with a guaranteed source of income from the training levy, such an incentive structure does not exist with respect to VETA. In effect, the proposed use of the levy means that VETA faces a 'soft budget constraint' in much same way as other parastatals did in Tanzania during the 1970s and 1980s. The failure to recruit an entirely new management team to run VETA has further compounded this problem. To outside observers, it looks as though VETA is being managed by the same NVTD managers, many of whom lack creditability among industry and other key stakeholders.

Finally, evidence from other countries strongly suggests that effective support for informal sector entrepreneurs and workers nearly always should be provided as an integrated package of services including, credit, consultancy, and training. Training as a single input provided by designated training centres rarely works. Serious consideration needs to be given, therefore, to the proposed provision of training for microenterprises by VETA training centres.

2.3 ZIMBABWE: THE MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION

2.3.1 Governance and organisation

The Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) is a good example of a supply-driven training system. The 1994 Manpower Planning and Development Act provided for the establishment of centralised, bureaucratic control over the polytechnics, technical colleges and vocational training centres, a weak advisory body to represent the interests of employers and other major stakeholders, (namely the National Manpower Advisory Council (NAMACO)), and a government-controlled training levy-grant system (the Zimbabwe Manpower Development Fund (ZIMDEF)). Courses at the polytechnics and colleges cater almost exclusively for pre-employment occupational training for government and mainly large employers in the industrial and commercial sectors. Most employers are primarily concerned with job-related training. However, training provision that is geared to meeting these training needs has received little attention, both in terms of financial support from ZIMDEF and special courses at MOHE training institutions.

Employer and other stakeholder criticism of VET provision by the MOHE has continued to grow since the start of economic liberalisation in 1991. The Ministry itself accepts some of these criticisms and has attempted to introduce a number of reforms. These include encouraging greater efficiency and financial self-sufficiency at its colleges, a more positive attitude to private sector training institutions, and amendments (passed in 1994) to the Manpower Planning and Development Act in order to enable NAMACO to play a more effective role and to make the apprenticeship system more responsive to employers' needs. However, these represent only minor

changes to the system and certainly do not meet the concerns of NAMACO and other organisations and individuals who want wide-ranging reforms that, collectively, would result in a genuinely demand-driven training system.

In part, this lack of response is due to the slow pace of public sector reform as a whole in Zimbabwe with government reluctant to relinquish its control over key functions and resources. However, the relatively low priority attached to VET reform by employers and their organisations has also meant that little serious pressure has been brought to bear on politicians and senior policymakers.

2.3.2 Planning

The planning and research capacity of the MOHE has remained weak during the 1990s. In the period immediately after Independence, the government attached very considerable importance to 'manpower planning', but since the late 1980s no serious attempt has been made to develop a comprehensive human resources development strategy based upon clear sectoral needs and priorities. A National Manpower Needs Analysis was finally published in 1995. Unfortunately, however, both the survey methodology and data collection are flawed. Consequently, the considerable expansion of VET provision in the public sector during the 1990s has not been guided by a proper analysis of actual and future training needs.

2.3.3 Funding

Central government: In real terms, the MOHE's budget increased, on average, by 6.3 per cent per annum between 1991/92 and 1995/96. However, the corresponding figure for VET was -1.4 per cent. Allocations for salaries and subsistence and travel have been particularly badly affected. Real expenditure per student fell by 41 per cent between 1989 and 1995. Faced with such a large fall in funding, budget over-runs have been sizeable, at least up until 1995 when the Stop Payments System was introduced. This has resulted in a very considerable tightening of the budgetary process and colleges have found it increasingly difficult to honour payments to suppliers of goods and services.

Budget cuts have had a profoundly negative impact on the training process. The annual reports of the polytechnics and technical colleges catalogue a long list of problems including grossly inadequate transport, library facilities, textbook provision and basic equipment (especially computers). Equipment has not been properly maintained. Highly bureaucratic procurement procedures have also posed a major problem for college managements.

ZIMDEF: As the real value of central government funding has declined, increasing reliance has been placed on ZIMDEF. All registered employers must pay the equivalent of one per cent of their payroll costs into the fund. In return, they can apply for the reimbursement of training costs at courses and other training activities that have been approved by ZIMDEF.

Since 1990, most consumables and equipment costs at the polytechnics and technical colleges have been met from ZIMDEF with the MOHE covering salaries only. Employers' organisations believe that this is a serious 'diversion' of ZIMDEF resources from funding job-related training which they see as the main purpose of the training levy.

Between 1990 and 1995, training levy 'collections' increased from Z$47.8 million to Z$121.1 million, a nominal increase of 153.3 per cent, but a decrease of 24.5 per cent in real terms During the same period, expenditures rose from Z$39.1 million to Z$100.5 million, a real decrease of 23.3 per cent. Between 1992 and 1995, real expenditures fell by nearly a half. And yet, the gap between total income (collections plus interest on reserves) and expenditure increased very significantly - from 11.5 per cent in 1990 to 34.8 per cent in 1995 when total reserves stood at an all time high of Z$145.4 million.

Since the start of ESAP, the only major change in the pattern of ZIMDEF expenditures has been the fall in the relative importance of 'capital projects' and the increase in the share allocated to 'industrial attachments' (see Table 2.7). However, with only 4-5 per cent of total income being devoted to rebates for employer training during the 1990s, the majority of employers have continued to express their strong dissatisfaction with the utilisation of ZIMDEF funds and, not surprisingly, continue to regard the training levy as little more than a tax. Between 1990 and 1997, the number of companies required to pay the levy increased by 5.2 per cent to 13,076. However, 27.8 per cent of these companies are 'under investigation' by ZIMDEF for not paying their levy contributions.

Table 2.7 : Utilisation of ZIMDEF resources 1990-1995 (percentage)

	1990	1995
Apprenticeship	45.7	36.4
Skilled worker	1.9	3.6
Capital projects	39.9	4.4
Employer rebates	6.3	8.1
Equipment	0.3	5.8
Consumables	0.0	15.8
Industrial attachments	2.6	17.6

Source: ZIMDEF

Other Funding Sources: Faced with such an acute funding crisis, the polytechnics and colleges have tried to generate additional income through the introduction of new (mainly evening and weekend) courses and production activities. However, while many of the courses have proved popular, they have not led to any significant improvement in the funding situation. Government regulations require that all income earned by the colleges is returned to the Treasury which acts as a major disincentive for college management and teaching staff to take income generation seriously.

External assistance (in particular from Germany, the United States and, to a lesser extent, Canada and France) has been very important in the construction and equipping of the new MOHE training institutions that were established during the 1980s, including the Harare Institute of Technology (HIT), two Vocational Training Centres at Msasa and Westgate, and the Hotel School at Bulawayo Polytechnic. While no comprehensive data is available, it is clear however, that direct donor support for VET has fallen very considerably during the 1990s as donors have switched their

support to basic education. Within the VET sector, donors (in particular, the Germans and the British) are now focusing mainly on training for the informal sector and other disadvantaged groups.

Finally, direct contributions by companies have remained minimal. Prior to Independence, these had been relatively substantial. However, as senior managers at most companies have become increasingly unhappy about their lack of control and effective involvement in training provision at government training centres, financial contributions have declined significantly. Over the years, enterprises and industries have been internalising their training. Increasingly, they are organising their own training activities as is evidenced by the establishment of industry training centres in textiles and clothing, printing and packaging, and leather and shoe. Growing sectoralisation of training provision is a global phenomenon.

2.3.4 Staffing and Remuneration

The staffing situation at the MOHE training centres has improved during the 1990s. The number of instructors in-post increased by nearly 70 per cent between 1989 and 1995 and the vacancy rate fell from 34.8 per cent to 8.5 per cent during the same period. At least half of all instructors have been trained at the Technical Teachers' College in Gweru. Widespread concerns have been voiced about the lack of practical experience of these instructors. Staff turnover has remained low in most subject areas.

By the mid 1990s, lecturer:student ratios for most courses were well under the MOHE's norm of 1:24. The most important exceptions were business studies (1:37) and secretarial studies (1:28).

In real terms, the basic salaries of lecturers fell by 20-30 per cent between 1990 and 1995. Combined with efforts by the MOHE to increase student contact hours, this significant decrease in real incomes has adversely affected the morale and motivation of teaching as well as support staff.

2.3.5 Enrolments

Enrolment Trends: During the 1980s, enrolments at the polytechnics and technical colleges expanded very rapidly, with an annual average rate growth of 16.5 per cent. During the 1990s, however, enrolment growth has slowed down very considerably which can be largely attributed to budget cuts. Between the start of ESAP in 1991 and 1996, the average rate of growth in total student numbers was 7.5 per cent per annum. In 1996, 60 per cent of students attended the colleges on a full-time basis. Female students comprised only 31 per cent and 27 per cent of full- and part-time students respectively.

The rationalisation of courses since 1993, and in particular the merging of the National Intermediate Diploma (NID) with the National Diploma (ND) qualification has raised formal entry requirements at colleges thereby further depressing enrolment growth. Despite the MOHE's affirmative action policy that was officially adopted in 1993, the share of female students in total enrolments fell very considerably - from 39.0 per cent in 1989 to 29.5 per cent in 1996. This has been mainly due to the decline in the relative number of enrolments in subjects such as business studies and secretarial which have the highest concentrations of female students.

While total enrolments at the three VTCs have increased in the 1990s (from 241 in 1990 to 898 in 1995), the absolute level of training remains very low for an economy the size and sophistication of

Zimbabwe. There continues to be enormous pent-up demand for skills upgrading among individual workers, but most private sector employers are reluctant to allow their workers to acquire trade tests in this way, fearing considerably higher wage costs and/or increased attrition. As a result, over half of the workers who attend VTCs are employed in the public sector. Large scale retrenchments in many industrial sectors and a generally deteriorating economic climate with high inflation and interest rates for much of this period have also adversely affected the level of effective demand for this type of training. With reduced staff levels, employers have found it that much more difficult to release workers for even short periods of formal training.

Apprenticeship: The total number of craft apprentices being indentured with employers has remained very small since the start of ESAP (see Table 2.8). The apprenticeship programme in the public sector has, in fact, been shrinking with parastatals and government ministries alike facing increasingly 'hard budgets' and retrenchments. In the private sector, recruitment of new apprentices has also declined significantly in recent years. The centralisation of apprentice recruitment and the bonding of apprentices had a very negative impact on employers' attitudes to apprenticeship training. Among school leavers, however, the demand for apprenticeship remains extremely high. In 1995, for example, there were 25,425 eligible applicants for the 944 training places that were available.

Table 2.8: Newly indentured apprentices, 1991-1996

	Male			Female			Totals		
Year	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	All
1991	518	700	1218	1	4	5	519	704	1223
1992	403	527	930	19	7	26	422	534	956
1993	341	951	1292	10	66	76	351	1017	1368
1994	466	1415	1881	23	44	67	489	1459	1948
1995	52	825	877	4	63	67	56	888	944
1996	434	829	1363	31	52	83	465	881	1346

Source: Compiled from MOHE records

While the number of employers sponsoring new apprentices has increased during the 1990s (from 134 in 1991 to 231 in 1996), a small group of less than 20 enterprises still accounts for over 40 per cent of all new apprenticeships. And, despite the fact that 9500 employers are currently paying the training levy and are, therefore, entitled to receive generous state financial support for apprenticeship training (on average, approximately Z$5000 per annum), barely 2.5 per cent are actually prepared to sponsor new apprentices in any one year.

During the 1990s, employer dissatisfaction with the apprenticeship system has been fuelled by:

(i) the reform of the apprenticeship system in 1993 with apprentices now required to attend colleges for one full academic year;
(ii) the chronic lack of training capacity at the polytechnics and colleges. In 1994, for example, 55 per cent of apprentices had to have their training deferred for at least a year; and
(iii) generally poor quality training with out-dated curriculum and instructors who lack industrial experience.

2.3.6 Capacity Utilisation

Capacity utilisation for the (male-dominated) engineering subjects has improved significantly during the 1990s, but it has remained low in key subjects such as business, hotel and catering, secretarial and computing where proportionately more women are enrolled. Inadequate equipment and staff shortages were reported as the main constraints preventing greater capacity utilisation. Faced with unchanging staff establishments, colleges have been forced to rely heavily on part-time instructors who are considerably more costly. Given existing under-capacity, there seems little point in building new technical colleges as is planned at Bindura and Marondera.

2.3.7 Course and Curriculum Development

A key objective of the MOHE's 1991-95 Human Resources Development Plan was to diversify the VET curriculum. By 1995, however, only 28 of the scheduled 165 new courses had been introduced. And, among the courses that have been developed, none of them have been based on a detailed training needs analysis. Attempts to introduce national certificate and diploma courses have been seriously affected by lack of qualified staff. The Curriculum Division at MOHE Head Office has been seriously under-staffed. An internal MOHE evaluation report found that most staff within the Ministry were not even aware of the existence of the HRD Plan. While some of the Plan's targets have been met, the evaluation concludes that this has been more by luck then judgement.

Faced with these multiple constraints, little progress has been made in developing new courses for the informal sector and other disadvantaged groups. Most colleges now run 'hobby' courses in the evenings and at weekends, but these have had little impact on informal sector entrepreneurs and workers. The most promising initiative is the Informal Sector Training and Resource Network (INSTARN) which is funded by the German Government and is based in Masvingo. However, the numbers of individuals being supported by INSTARN remains quite small.

2.3.8 Examination Performance

While the overall pass rates for all VET national (HEXCO) examinations increased significantly from 27.6 per cent in 1990 to 57.0 per cent in 1994 (the latest year for which published information is available), the phasing out of the NID, NCC, NITC, NTC and City and Guilds courses resulted in the number of examination candidates falling by 45.7 per cent - from 15,398 in 1990 to just 8,309 in 1994. The targets set by the Human Resources Development Plan were 12,000 entries by 1995 and an overall pass rate of 70 per cent. Compared with the nearly 150,000 Form IV students who sat for 'O' levels in the mid 1990s, the output of the VET system is relatively very small.

Overall pass rates at the two polytechnics and six of the seven technical colleges were between 30-50 per cent in 1994. With a pass rate of 70 per cent, students at Harare Institute of Technology performed much better. Although the pass rate at 'other private colleges and schools' was a relatively impressive 60.6 per cent, most of the students took only national certificate courses in mainly commercial subjects. Thus, without more disaggregated information, it is not possible to make meaningful comparisons between public and private sector training institutions..

Data on drop-out and repetition rates for students at MOHE training institutions are also not available. However, one-third of (one year) national certificate students enrolled in 1994 did not sit

for the examination which suggests that drop-out and/or repetition rates were very high. However, for the (two year) national diploma and (one year) higher national diploma courses, the level of student attrition appears to be considerably lower (i.e. less than 10 per cent).

More up to date information on examination performance in six core subject areas is presented in Tables 2.9 and 2.10. At the national certificate level, although pass rates have improved (with the exception of electrical engineering), they are still poor. Even for the subjects with the best pass rates (namely business and secretarial), one-third of students failed in 1996. Pass rates for the national diploma and national diploma courses are equally low which, again, is a reflection of the poor quality of training at MOHE training institutions.

Table 2.9: Examination results at certificate level by discipline, 1992, 1994 and 1996

	1992		1994		1996	
Course	No. entered	Pass rate	No. entered	Pass rate	No. entered	Pass rate
Electrical Engineering	138	41.3	187	55.1	143	35.0
Mechanical Eng.	128	30.5	372	41.4	375	43.2
Civil Engineering	73	8.2	257	34.2	241	39.0
Computing	-	-	424	52.6	254	53.5
Business	447	53.0	665	58.7	409	70.2
Secretarial	420	46.4	267	42.7	437	67.1

Source: Ministry of Higher Education, unpublished data

Table 2.10: Examination results at diploma level by discipline, 1992, 1994 and 1996

	1992		1994		1996	
Course	No. entered	Pass rate	No. entered	Pass rate	No. entered	Pass rate
Electrical Engineering	-	-	-	-	184	66.3
Mechanical Eng.	53	43.4	-	-	76	26.3
Civil Engineering	83	44.6	84	58.3	145	46.9
Computing	86	23.3	78	59.0	128	68.0
Business	635	23.5	635	30.2	46	43.5
Secretarial	10	20.0	267	42.7	641	59.0

Source: Ministry of Higher Education, unpublished data

The overall number of students passing in these subjects remains very small - barely 1000, 700 and 100 at the certificate, diploma, and higher diploma levels respectively. Fewer than 200 engineering diplomats are being trained each year.

Poor examination setting, moderating and marking skills continue to dog the MOHE's Examinations Division. In interviews with college managements and teaching staff, frequent complaints were made about the lack of relevance of many examination questions, and mistakes in papers. Rates for examiners, moderators and invigilators are too low to attract qualified and experienced personnel.

CHAPTER 3

SECTORAL TRAINING

3.1 SURVEY DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The main objective of this survey was to assess the extent to which sector-specific training provided by individual ministries has changed since the start of economic adjustment programmes in Tanzania and Zimbabwe. Although ministerial mandates are not identical in each country, the following eight sectors were included in the surveys: agriculture, community development, energy, finance, health, public works, trade and industry, transport

Interviews were conducted with the official in each ministry who had overall responsibility for training. In addition, interviews were conducted with the principals/directors of individual training centres in each ministry. A total of 17 and 18 institutions were selected in Tanzania and Zimbabwe respectively. Interviews in both countries were conducted between October 1996 and April 1997.

Interviews were relatively unstructured and open-ended, but were based on a questionnaire. The purpose of each interview was to obtain information (both qualitative and quantitative) on the changes that have occurred with respect to the following key areas of training provision since 1990: overall training policies and priorities, the planning, organisation and management of training activities, resource inputs (in particular funding and staffing) and student enrolments and outputs.

3.2 TANZANIA

The ministries and public sector training institutions that were surveyed in Tanzania are presented in Table 3.1.

3.2.1 Type of Training

In all eight ministries, the type of long term training provided over the last 5-10 years has, with a few exceptions, remained largely unchanged. Ministries continue to offer the same 2-4 year pre-employment courses for core occupations in agriculture, commerce, community development, energy, finance, health, mining, transport as well as more general technical occupations. However, with greater institutional autonomy, some new, mainly short training courses have been introduced as a direct response to the new economic environment (see below).

Table 3.1 : Survey ministries and training institutions in Tanzania

Ministry	Training institutions	Location (region)
Agriculture and Co-operatives	The Co-operative College	Kilimanjaro
	Tengeru Horticulture Development Institute	Arusha
Communication and Transport	National Institute of Transport	DSM
Community Development, Women and Children	Msinga Folk Development College	Kilimanjaro
	Same Folk Development College	Kilimanjaro
	Mamtukure Folk Development College	Kilimanjaro
	Tango Folk Development College	Arusha
Energy and Minerals	TANESCO Training Institute	Kidatu
	Institute of Minerals (MADINI)	Dodoma
Finance	Institute of Accountancy	Arusha
	Dar Es Salaam School of Accountancy	DSM
Health	KCMC Nursing School	Kilimanjaro
	Mawenzi Nursing School	Kilimanjaro
Science, Technology and Higher Education	Arusha Technical College	Arusha
	Dar Es Salaam Technical College	DSM
Trade and Industry	College of Business Education	DSM
	High Precision Technology Centre	DSM

Table 3.2 summarises the main changes that have been made to training courses at the survey training centres. Most centres have made some changes to the content and duration of existing training courses as well as introducing new courses in response to new market demands. These changes have been greatest at the commercial training centres in Dar Es Salaam and Arusha (the two schools of accountancy and the College of Business Education), the Co-operative College in Moshi, some of the Folk Development Colleges and the two technical colleges. In overall terms, however, only about one-third of the survey training centres have made 'major changes' in the type of training they offer since the late 1980s.

Table 3.2 : Respondent ratings of extent of change in training provision since 1990 (percentages)

Type of training	No change	Limited changes	Major changes
Pre-service training	35.5	29.4	35.3
In-service training	35.3	29.4	35.3
Other groups training	35.3	47.1	17.6
Changes to training priorities	29.4	47.1	23.5
Changes to content of training	17.6	53.0	29.4
Changes to teaching and learning techniques	23.5	41.2	35.3
Average change	29.4	41.2	29.4

3.2.2 Organisation and Planning

There have been major changes in both the organisation and planning of VET since the late 1980s in almost all the ministries and related training centres surveyed. Most notably, there has been a decisive shift away from centralised control by parent ministries towards more decentralised patterns of organisation and planning with many training centres now enjoying a very considerable degree of institutional autonomy. Previously, most centres could not receive funds from outside sources, retain funds earned from their own income generating activities nor retain fees collected from students. They have now been given the authority to control directly these resources in support of their own training activities. As a result, there has been a marked improvement in the ability of training centres to provide good quality training

Individual training centres are increasingly setting their own training targets and are assuming much greater responsibility for student selection and course evaluation. Some degree of institutional autonomy has been given to training centres in four of the survey ministries (community development, women and children' affairs, finance, industry and trade, and science, technology and higher education). Significantly, much of the training provided by these ministries (particularly in commercial fields) is increasingly being offered by private training centres and where, therefore, there exists fairly strong individual and corporate demand for this training. By giving training centres more autonomy, this allows them to better position themselves in increasingly competitive training markets and exploit income earning opportunities.

3.2.3 Human and Physical Resources

Table 3.3 summarises the staffing information available from the survey training centres. Vacancy rates in 1995/96 were particularly high at five of the 11 centres. These centres specialise in accountancy and engineering training. Prior to the introduction of the Economic Reform Programme in 1986, most public sector training centres operated at or near full establishment levels so it would appear that the staffing situation has deteriorated appreciably among at least half of the survey training centres. To a large extent, this has been the consequence of government attempts to reduce public expenditure which, *inter alia*, have included a freeze on all new public sector employment and the introduction of cash budgeting in 1995 (see below). The emergence of private sector training centres has also adversely affected the staffing situation in the public sector with some of the most able instructors leaving to take up more lucrative employment at private training centres.

In real terms, basic salaries for more experienced instructors employed at public sector training centres were typically 15-20 per cent higher in 1995 than in 1990. However, for basic grade instructors, real incomes fell by approximately 10 per cent during the same period. Up to July 1996, instructors received an additional 50 per cent of their basic salaries as teaching allowances in order to enhance their take home pay. Other benefits included housing and transport and fuel allowances for those owning private vehicles. These allowances were not subject to taxation. However, with the introduction of new salary scales in July 1996, these allowances were consolidated into a single salary. As a result, instructors lost up to 30 per cent of their previous pay. Taking into account inflation, this meant that real incomes fell by over half in 1996 alone. The level of opposition was such that the government agreed to introduce new and separate pay scales

for teacher trainers and other instructors.

Table 3.3 : Staffing at survey training centres in Tanzania, 1996

Institution	Approved	In-post	Vacancies	Vacancies per cent Establishment
Co-operative College	84	84	0	0.0
Tengeru Agricultural Institute	27	25	2	7.4
Same FDC	12	12	0	0.0
Tango FDC	10	10	0	0.0
TANESCO Training Centre	29	28	1	3.4
Institute of Accountancy, Arusha	21	13	8	38.1
Dar Es Salaam School of Accountancy	74	56	18	24.3
Arusha Technical College	88	62	26	29.5
Dar Es Salaam Technical College	220	115	105	47.7
College of Business Education	54	50	4	7.4
High Precision Technology Centre	15	11	4	26.6

Source: Survey data.

The introduction of major cost-sharing measures in 1994/95 seriously reduced enrolments at most of the survey institutions which, in turn, has led to under-utilisation of both physical and human resources. As noted earlier, training centres have been given greater control over their activities so that they can better utilise the resources available to them. Four of the survey centres (Dar Es Salaam Technical College, the College of Business Education, High Precision Technology Centre and the National Institute of Transport) have been among the most successful centres in responding to the challenges thrown up by the new set of government policies (see Box 1).

While most of the remaining survey training centres have tried to introduce similar income-generating projects, they have not been as successful. At the Co-operative College, for example, specialised short courses have been introduced to help students prepare for local professional examinations in accountancy and materials management as well as new outreach programs for framer groups. However, overall capacity utilisation at the College is still under 50 per cent. Similarly, the Dar Es Salaam School of Accountancy and the Institute Of Accountancy in Arusha suffer from serious resource under-utilisation. Poor remuneration of instructors has undermined motivation and many have been poached by other organisations. It is clear that training centres such as these need to be given a lot more autonomy so that they can more effectively respond to emerging market opportunities and generate sufficient income to provide more attractive salary packages for their teaching staffs. Excessive interference from parent ministries has also prevented centre managements from effectively disciplining poorly performing staff at all levels. Without the power to dismiss staff, attempts to improve efficiency will be seriously constrained.

3.2.4 Funding

Box 1: Examples of successful institutional adjustment

Dar Es Salaam Technical College (DTC) has taken full advantage of its city centre location. A large number of demand-driven specialised short courses (mainly in engineering, secondary science subjects, and basic computing) have been successfully introduced along with other income generating activities, most notably consultancy services by instructors and other staff. The income from these activities is divided between the staff and the college on a 70:30 basis. Daily attendance on these new, specialised training courses averages over 1800 students which is far in excess of the college's enrolment capacity of 1240 for long term diploma and certificate courses.

The College of Business Education (CBE) has also designed and run a number of specialised training courses in accountancy and book keeping, marketing, and materials management as well as offering secondary school subjects in the afternoons. Instructors receive up to 50 percent of the fee income that is earned. CBE also provides housing and meal allowances. These new training activities have allowed CBE to operate at full capacity despite rapidly deteriorating government funding and ensured that teaching and support staff have been fully occupied.

The High Precision Technology Centre (HPTC) has adopted a somewhat different strategy in order to generate additional income. Through market research, HPTC has identified a number of machine parts which instructors and students now produce for a variety of clients in the industrial sector. The Centre's is also using its facilities to repair accident-damaged vehicles. Between 40-50 percent of the income generated from these activities is paid to staff and students with the balance retained by the Centre. In this way, HPTC has managed to utilise fully both its human and physical resources.

The National Institute of Transport (NIT) has also diversified its training activities and now runs short courses in basic computing, auto-mechanics and academic subjects for secondary school students. Instructors also undertake consultancies for a variety of clients. However, the Institute still has some way to go before it succeeds in fully utilising its staff and facilities. In particular, there is a lot of unexploited potential in auto-mechanic and auto-electrical training.

Tables 3.4 and 3.5 present the available information on real recurrent and development expenditures at the survey ministries and for eight of the survey training centres. Since 1993/94, there has been a precipitate decline in real expenditure on training in six out of the eight ministries. In four ministries (communications and transport, community development, women and children, energy and transport, and science, technology and higher education) real expenditure in 1995/96 was half or less than in 1990/91. The overall share of ministry-based VET in the overall education and training budget fell from 18 per cent in 1993/94 to only 12 per cent in 1995/96.

Turning to individual training centres, again, the same trend emerges, with the real value of government subventions falling dramatically since 1993/94 when cost-recovery policies were first introduced. Unconfirmed figures for 1995/96 disbursements indicate that the overall allocation for training activities may have even dropped a further 30 per cent as a significant part of the budgeted funds were reallocated to meet the costs of the 1995 multiparty elections. Five survey centres (Dar

Es Salaam Technical College, the College of Business Education, Tengeru Community Development Institute, the National Institute of Transport and the Dar Es Salaam School of Accountancy) stated that they did not receive any government funding for 3-6 months during 1995.

Table 3.4 : Real recurrent training expenditure among the survey ministries, 1990/91 – 1995/96

	Recurrent			Development		
Ministry	1990/91	1993/94	1995/96	1990/91	1993/94	1995/96
Agriculture and Co-operatives	100	103	65	-	-	-
Communications and Transport	100	120	15	-	-	-
Community Development, Women and Children	100	95	32	100	365	-
Energy and Minerals	100	111	52	100	177	59
Finance	100	145	144	-	-	-
Health	100	120	68	100	160	121
Trade and Industry	100	313	183	-	100	39
Science, Technology and Higher Education	100	94	54	100	87	47
Overall	**100**	**115**	**71**	**-**	**-**	**-**

The decline in development expenditures is largely the consequence of waning donor support for VET. The government had become largely dependent on donors for non-recurrent capital expenditure to develop and sustain the training capacities of many public sector centres. However, during the 1990s this support has been confined to a relatively few institutions. Among the survey centres, significant donor-supported activity was reported at the Folk Development Colleges (SIDA and DANIDA), and the two technical colleges and the National Institute of Transport (World Bank). With the notable exception of NVTD/VETA, donor funding for VET dried up altogether at other public sector training institutions.

Table 3.5 : Recurrent expenditure for selected survey training centres (constant prices, 1990/91 = 100)

Ministry and training centre	Recurrent			
	1990/91	1993/94	1994/95	1995/96 (estimates)
Agriculture				
Co-operative College	100	147	151	134
Tengeru Agricultural Training Institute	100	66	30	8
Communication and Transport				
National Institute of Transport	100	218	159	28
Energy and Minerals				
Institute of Minerals	100	170	252	108
Finance				
Institute of Accountancy, Arusha	100	115	121	120
DSM School of Accountancy	100	186	170	108
Trade and Industry				
College of Business Education	100	132	81	74
High Precision Technology Centre		100	40	33

3.2.5 Cost Recovery

Under the new policy, students and their parents or other sponsors are now required to meet the food and subsistence costs of all long term degree, diploma and certificate courses offered by government training institutions including the universities. In 1993/94, private contributions to the costs of higher education amounted to 16 per cent of total costs per student (see Mushi, 1995). Long term loans to help cover these private costs are now available. For other, mainly short term courses, training centres are now expected to operate on a full cost recovery basis with no public subsidy.

The main coping strategies adopted by the survey training centres are summarised in Annex 1. As discussed earlier, there is a small group centres that have been particularly successful in responding to the challenges of government's new policy regime for VET. Significantly, it is this group which has enjoyed the greatest institutional autonomy and where there exist rapidly growing demand for the types of courses offered by them (i.e. computing, accountancy, management, auto trades and more specialist engineering subjects).

Dar Es Salaam Technical College now manages to meet 70 per cent of its operating costs through course fees and other income generating activities. As part of legislation passed in early 1997, the College has become a fully autonomous institution under the Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education paving the way for it to be upgraded to a university of science and technology. The College of Business Education and High Precision Technology Centre also covered between 50-60 per cent of their operating courses during 1995 and 1996. However, government continues to meet salary costs at these three centres so clearly there is still a long way to go before they are fully financially self sufficient.

Another group of survey training centres have good potential for commercialising their services (which includes the Co-operative College, the two accountancy schools, the National Institute of Transport, and Arusha Technical College) but, as yet, have only made limited progress in generating new income. Only 25-30 per cent of operating costs were met in 1996. In part, this can be attributed to management inertia and lack of dynamism. Once the Institute of Minerals has been refurbished, there should also be considerable scope for income-generating courses and staff consultancies in the rapidly expanding mining sector. The challenge facing the Folk Development Courses is that much greater since they are mainly located in rural areas. However, imaginative self-funding training programs could be mounted to cover key areas of non-farm self employment including auto-mechanics, brick-making, brick-laying, carpentry, food processing, tailoring and metal-fabrication and welding.

Finally, there is a group of survey training centres where the scope for additional income generation is relatively limited. This includes Tengeru Horticulture Institute, the two nurse training centres (KCMC and Mawenzi), and the TANESCO Training Centre at Kidatu.

3.2.6 Enrolments and Outputs

Table 3.6 shows that for 7 out of the 11 survey training centres for which data are available, enrolments fell during the five year period 1990/91 to 1995/96. At five survey centres, enrolments have declined particularly rapidly since the introduction of cost recovery polices in 1994. However, among the minority of centres that have successfully adjusted to the new policy environment, enrolments and rates of capacity utilisation have increased during the 1990s (although these increases are relatively small).

Table 3.7 summarises available information of female enrolments at the survey training institutions. It can be observed that not only are female students a tiny minority at these centres, but that with the exception of HPTC, their percentage representation actually declined between 1991 and 1996.

Average capacity utilisation declined from 76 per cent in 1991/92 to 56 per cent in 1994/95. These averages conceal large differences among the individual survey centres. However, with the sole exceptions of Arusha Technical College and HPTC, capacity utilisation was less than 80 per cent at all the survey training centres with the lowest levels at the DSM School of Accountancy (34 per cent) and the Tengeru Horticulture Institute (47 per cent).

Table 3.6: Enrolment and capacity utilisation at survey institutions

Training institution	Capacity	1991/92		1992/93		1993/94		1994/95		1995/96	
		Enrolment	per cent capacity	Enrolment	per cent capacity	Enrolment	per cent capacity	Enrolment	per cent capacity	Enrolment	per cent capacity
Co-operative College	713	746	*104.6	526	73.8	425	59.6	350	49.1	510	71.5
Tengeru Horticultural Training Institute	60	52	86.7	53	88.3	63	*105.0	47	78.3	28	46.7
National Institute of Transport	250	184	75.6	193	77.2	198	79.2	182	72.8	145	58.0
Same Folk Development College	80	53	66.3	56	70.0	41	51.3	80	100	48	60.0
Mantukana Folk Development College	100	80	80	61	61.0	96	96.0	86	86.0	55	55.0
TANESCO Training Centre	180	136	75.6	144	80.0	152	84.4	115	63.9	114	63.3
DSM. School of Accountancy	900	498	55.3	469	52.0	465	51.7	533	59.2	302	33.6
Arusha Technical College	450	467	103.7	406	90.2	433	96.2	463	*102.8	485	*107.7
DSM Technical College	1240	772	62.2	767	62	767	62.2	751	60.5	846	68.2
High Precision Technology Centre	40	34	85.0	26	65.0	41	*102.5	44	*110.0	42	*105.0
College of Business Education	800	527	66	615	77	602	75	601	75	622	78
Total/Average	**4813**	**3634**	**75.5**	**3316**	**68.9**	**3283**	**68.2**	**2689**	**55.9**	**3197**	**66.4**

Source: Survey data

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Table 3.7 : Female enrolment at selected survey training centres (percentage)

Centre	1991/92	1995/96
Dar Es Salaam Technical College	5.8	4.7
Arusha Technical College	16.8	11.5
TANESCO	7.1	6.5
HPTC	0.0	5.2
NIT	4.2	2.8
CBE	36.4	33.6

Unfortunately, insufficient time series data exists on graduate outputs to be able to draw any firm conclusions about trends in drop-out and pass rates and the overall level of graduate outputs among the survey training centres since the 1980s. Table 3.8 shows that graduation rates were generally quite high at the eight centres that were able to provide this information. The main exceptions are the Co-operative College and Dar Es Salaam and Arusha Technical Colleges.

Table 3.8: Summary of graduates at selected institutions in 1995/96

Institution	Total students in final year (all courses)	Graduates (output)	Graduation rate
KIDATU Institute	33	32	97
HPTC	23	19	83
Dar Technical College	292	218	75
Arusha Technical College	179	139	78
National Institute of transport	69	61	88
College of Business Education	278	273	98
Tengeru Horticulture	16	16	100
Co-operative College†	37	24	65

Source: Survey data.
Note: HPTC = High Precision Technology Centre.
† Certificate in Management Accountancy only

3.3 ZIMBABWE

The survey in Zimbabwe covered the following eight ministries: agriculture, health and child welfare, information, local government, rural and urban development, posts and telecommunications, mines, national affairs, employment, and co-operatives, public service, labour and social welfare, and transport and energy. Between them, these ministries provide the bulk of public sector training outside of the MOHE. The 18 individual training centres included in survey are presented in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9 : Survey ministries and training institutions

Parent Ministry	Training institutions surveyed
Agriculture	Chibero Agricultural College Department of Agricultural Education
Health and Child Welfare	Directorate of Nursing Services Department of Nursing Science (University of Zimbabwe)
Information, Posts and Telecommunications	Post and Telecommunications Corp (PTC) Technical College
Local Government, Rural and Urban Development	District Development Fund Training Centres (8)
Mines	School of Mines
National Affairs, Employment and Co-operatives	Kaguvi, Magamba and Ruwa Youth Training Centres Department of Youth Training and Staff Development
Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare	Directorate of Training Highlands and Domboshawa National Training Centres Zimbabwe Institute of Public Administration and Management (ZIPAM) Ruwa Rehabilitation Centre Directorate of Social Welfare
Transport and Energy	Aviation Technical Training School (Air Zimbabwe) Zimbabwe Electricity Supply Authority (ZESA) National Training Centre

There are two main types of training institution in the public sector in Zimbabwe namely, those that are directly controlled by parent ministries and are subject to both Public Service Commission and Treasury regulations and procedures, and those that are part of parastatals or have been granted greater institutional autonomy by parent ministries. For expositional convenience, these will be referred to as ministry-based and parastatal-based training centres respectively.

3.3.1 Training mandates and objectives

Since the start of ESAP in 1991, 90 per cent of the survey ministries and training centres stated that the type of training provided had 'significantly changed'. This applies to both pre- and in-service course provision. While all these changes in training cannot be directly attributed to the impacts of ESAP, it would appear that the new macroeconomic policy regime has put ministries under some pressure to make adjustments to their own training. However, the degree of success in responding to these new challenges has varied considerably among the survey ministries and training centres. In some instances, the quantity and the quality of training has deteriorated quite seriously.

Target Clienteles: Table 3.10 shows that 40 per cent of the survey respondents reported that training provision has changed as a result of new priority groups of trainees being targeted. Three particular types of reorientation of training objectives can be broadly identified:

(i) A shift towards short term training courses with respect to both in-service and external client groups. Parastatal training organisations (ZIPAM, ZESA-NTC, School of Mines, PTC-TC) have attempted to commercialise their training operations with training for external clients becoming an increasingly important source of income.

Table 3.10: Summary of respondent change ratings, 1990-96

Area of change	No change	Some change	Significant change
Priority target groups	35	25	40
Training content	0	15	85
Teaching/learning techniques	15	25	60
Student work attachments	55	20	25
Organisational structure	25	10	65
Planning procedures	45	5	50
Income sources	85	0	15

(ii) An increased emphasis on entrepreneurship training. The prime examples here are Kaguvi and Magamba Youth Training Centres which have been comprehensively reorganised as Enterprise Training Centres;

(iii) Qualification up-grading. As the supply of better qualified school leavers with 'O' and 'A' levels has increased rapidly since the 1980s, entrance qualifications have risen accordingly. Faced

with this situation, some training centres (the colleges of agriculture, Domboshawa NTC, the Directorate of Nursing) have introduced new diploma and degree courses. Policy changes often related to rapidly changing technologies have also been a key factor. For example, the new diploma nursing course is more theoretical and there is a much closer integration of primary health care and diagnostic procedures. The new post-basic courses offered at the University of Zimbabwe include basic computer skills, a compulsory clinical component and nurse education.

Even where there have been no change in priority training clienteles, most centres offering pre-service occupational training have had to make curriculum changes in order to bring their courses in line with the national structure of VET qualifications that was introduced by the MOHE in 1990. With regard to in-service training, the rapid introduction of new technologies coupled with an increased emphasis on meeting the training needs of all employees and not just technical personnel has also resulted in new courses being introduced (particularly computing) and, more generally, more diversified training provision. The dramatic technological changes in the electronic and communication industries has led to a major reorganisation of training programmes at PTC-TC. Pre- and in-service courses have been comprehensively reviewed and a range of new courses have been introduced including graduate engineer training, cross-sectoral training for supervisors and training for cellular and mobile telecommunications. Similarly, a decision was made to transform the ZESA-NTC into a Performance Improvement Centre to cater for the diverse training needs of all staff. Within the public service also, increasing pressure to restructure and modernise have resulted in a range of new courses at the Highlands NTC and ZIPAM (including performance and change management and basic information technology skills).

Training Content and Delivery: Given the pervasiveness of these significant changes in the type of training provided, only 15 per cent of survey respondents stated that there had been no or only limited change in the actual content of their training programmes (see Table 3.10). However, increasingly severe funding constraints affecting the ministry-based training centres and an overall decline in donor support, has meant that corresponding changes in teaching and learning techniques and technologies have been less pervasive. Nonetheless, 60 per cent of survey respondents reported major change in this area. Most of the parastatal and semi-autonomous centres (Air Zimbabwe TS, School of Mines, ZESA-NTC, PTC-TC, and ZIPAM) have had the sufficient financial resources to acquire better training equipment including computers, videos and software for modular and competency based training. At ZIPAM, there has been a move away from trainer-centred to trainee-centred learning techniques.

Employer Involvement and Industrial Attachments: A large majority of survey respondents stated that employer involvement in the governance, planning and delivery of training activities had 'increased significantly' (55 per cent) or 'increased' (15 per cent) since 1990. Only 10 per cent indicated that employer involvement had declined (see Table 3.11). Apart from the parastatal-based training centres (PTC, ZESA, ZIPAM) and the School of Mines, three ministries reported significantly higher employer involvement (MNAEC with respect to Kaguvi and Magamba YTCs, MLPSW - Highlands and Domboshawa, and MLGRUD - DDF Training Centres). Changes in governance arrangements have played a key role in encouraging employers to be more actively involved (see below).

Table 3.11: Summary of respondent change ratings, 1990-96

Area of change	Decreased significantly	Decreased	No change	Increased	Increased significantly
Employer involvement	5	5	20	15	55
Student intake quality	0	0	5	30	65
Private sector competition	5	0	55	10	30
Planning capacity	0	5	35	20	55
Quality of managers	0	0	15	20	65
Government funding	60	15	15	10	0
Donor funding	35	15	25	15	10
Quality of instructors	0	0	5	35	60
Motivation of instructors	5	50	10	15	20
Quality of support staff	0	0	20	40	40
Motivation of support staff	15	45	10	15	15
In-service training	0	0	30	50	20
Student contact hours	10	0	50	20	20
Ability to dismiss	5	25	60	5	5
Utilisation of facilities	5	10	45	15	25

Changes in the level of industrial attachments by students have been much less marked - only 25 per cent of the sample indicated that there had been a significant increase since 1990, 20 per cent some increase and 55 per cent no change. Clearly, where centres are providing mainly in-service training, work attachments are not generally required. Work attachments have increased at some centres in order to comply with the statutory minimum requirements for HEXCO certificate courses.

3.3.2 Organisation, planning and management

Organisational Restructuring: Two-thirds of the ministries and centres surveyed stated that 'significant changes' to organisational structures had been made since 1990. Only 25 per cent reported 'no change' (see Table 3.10). Organisational reforms have generally been a key component of strategies to improve the capacity of training centres to provide cost-effective, high-quality training. Five main types of organisational restructuring can be identified:

(i) The establishment of semi-autonomous training centres with new or radically reconstituted governing boards and considerable freedom with respect to management and financing policies and practices. The School of Mines and ZIPAM are the two prime examples of this type of reorganisation;

(ii) More limited changes to governance structures that do not result in effective organisational independence, but attempt to increase the involvement of key stakeholders. A Board of

Trustees has been created at Kaguvi Enterprise Training Centre and a Board of Studies at Domboshawa NTC.

(iii) The establishment of new training departments/divisions which, however, still remain under the direct control of the parent ministry. For example, the Department of Youth Affairs, MNAEC has been replaced by a Department of Training and Staff Development. The training function for nurses has also been upgraded and professionalised in the Ministry of Health and Child Welfare with the creation of a Directorate of Nursing Services with its own Director who reports directly to the Principal Medical Officer.

(iv) The effective dismantlement of a separate training department. In 1995, all professional and technical staff at the eight DDF training centres were redeployed to line functions in other specialist departments where conditions of service are considerably better. This redeployment coupled with lack of adequate funding has resulted in the suspension of all formal vocational and apprenticeship training at the DDF centres.

(v) Reorganisation of existing training centres. The PTC-TC has been restructured and upgraded as a department within the PTC in order to create more attractive career prospects for training personnel who previously had little financial incentive to stay at the college.

Planning Capacity and Procedures: Three-quarters of survey respondents stated that their capacity to plan training activities had 'improved significantly' (DDF, Public Service Directorate of Training, Directorate of Nursing Services, MNAEC, PTC-TC, School of Mines, ZESA, ZIPAM) or 'improved' (Air Zimbabwe TS, Domboshawa NTC, Directorate of Social Welfare, Highlands Public Service TC) since 1990. This was largely attributed to better trained staff and closer links with employers. The 25 per cent of survey respondents who stated that planning capacity had deteriorated or remained unchanged pointed to financial constraints. With inadequate and declining funding coupled with unattractive remuneration and working conditions, these centres (Ruwa YTC, Gwebi and Chibero Colleges of Agriculture, Ruwa Rehabilitation TC) have been unable to acquire and maintain the necessary resources, retain experienced staff, and liaise with employers.

Half the respondents reported that major changes have been made to planning procedures since 1990 while 45 per cent stated that there have been no changes. Where changes have been made, planning is more demand-driven with employers and other end-users being more directly and systematically consulted. At the ZESA National Training Centre, trainers are attached to the different sections within the organisation and staff appraisal instruments and procedures have been re-designed so that individual training needs are properly assessed.

Management: All but three survey centres stated that significant actions have been taken to improve the quality of training managers, including the filling of vacant posts and increasing staff establishments, raising the qualifications profile of managers and enhanced training, improving conditions of service, and the employment of expatriates. For the ministry-based centres, these management improvement efforts have been made in the face of 'no expansion budgets', a freeze followed by the abolition of all vacant posts, and stringent immigration controls (see below). It is surprising to find therefore that almost two-thirds of the survey centres indicated that there have been major improvements in the overall quality of training managers with another 20 per cent reporting an 'increase' in quality. Higher recruitment standards and increased staff development activities are the most commonly cited explanatory factors.

3.3.3 Funding

Sources of Funding: All ministry-based training centres (with the sole exception of Kaguvi ETC) are entirely dependent on government funding. Up until 1998, Treasury rules did not allow them to retain any self-generated income. Consequently, there was no real incentive for these centres to become more financially self-reliant. Only three of the survey training centres rely (at least partially) on their own income sources (Kaguvi ETC, School of Mines, and ZIPAM). The Department of Nursing Science at the University of Zimbabwe, the School of Mines and ZIPAM receive substantial financial support from government in the form of grants. Three centres run courses that were recognised by and thus receive funding from ZIMDEF (Air Zimbabwe TS, Ruwa Rehabilitation TC and the School of Mines). Only half of the survey training centres are donor supported.

Faced with the Treasury's refusal to allow centres to be given the authority to raise and retain their income (despite widespread representations), it is not surprising, therefore, that 85 per cent of the survey training centres reported no change in funding sources. Only Kaguvi ETC, the School of Mines and ZIPAM stated that major changes have occurred since 1990 in the sourcing of their funding. Both the School of Mines and ZIPAM have changed from being totally government funded to multi-funded, autonomous institutions. The government's annual grant to the School of Mines is matched by the Chamber of Mines. Both have introduced course fees and these have been increased very considerably in recent years. They are now so high that only employers and donors are able to sponsor students. Both centres are also expected to become fully financially self-reliant within the next 2-3 years so they will be effectively privatised.

Adequacy of funding: Most survey training centres reported 'significant declines' (60 per cent) and 'declines' (20 per cent) in the adequacy of government funding since 1990. No expansion budgets and a 'stop-payment' system were introduced in 1995. Domboshawa National Training Centre is fairly typical. Between 1990 and 1995, real expenditures on salaries fell 35.1 per cent, on travel and subsistence 76.4 per cent, provisions and staff training 41.5 per cent, grants 41.6 percent and equipment 100 per cent.

The level of donor support has also fallen in half of the survey training centres (35 per cent 'significantly'). Only 25 per cent stated that donor support had increased - Kaguvi and Magamba Enterprise Training Centres, PTC-TC, the School of Mines, and the Department of Nursing Science at the University of Zimbabwe

3.3.4 Staffing and human resources management

The staffing situation has improved at most VET centres since the start of ESAP. The number of instructors in-post increased at 8 out of the 10 public service centres for which information is available with a median increase between 1992 and 1995 of 12.5 per cent and an overall increase of 11.4 per cent.

Real incomes of teaching staff at ministry-based training centres declined by 40-50 per cent between 1990 and 1995. Not surprisingly, therefore, over half of the respondents reported that levels of motivation have also fallen during the 1990s which has clearly undermined the overall efforts that have been made to improve staff efficiency in the public sector. Deteriorating conditions of service and working conditions are pervasive concerns. The freezing and subsequent

abolition of posts has increased work pressure on remaining staff. 40 per cent of respondents stated that student contact hours had increased since 1990 with another 50 per cent estimating that there had been no changes.

The non-payment of bonuses and the untimely introduction of a new performance appraisal system that has still to be fully implemented have further aggravated this situation. Most of the survey training centres have still not benefited from a much publicised restructuring and regrading exercise for the public service as a whole. The funding crisis has meant that trainers have had to make do with few consumables and equipment and teaching aids that are in a poor state of repair and/or obsolete. Lack of funds to meet travel and subsistence expenses has also meant that staff have been unable to arrange and monitor effectively student work attachments. Support staff generally feel that trainers have been given preferential treatment by the Public Service.

Where survey training centres have been able to secure their funding position, increases in staff motivation were reported (most notably the Department of Nursing, School of Mines, PTC-TC, Kaguvi and Magaba ETCs). Improvements in conditions of service have been closely associated with increases in student contact hours.

Low and declining staff motivation has been further exacerbated by the persistence of very unwieldy procedures for dismissing staff. 60 per cent of respondents indicated that here has been no appreciable change in the ability of managements to dismiss trainers and support staff whose work standards are persistently unsatisfactory. Another 30 per cent stated that there had been a deterioration. Only the School of Mines indicated that management's power of dismissal has improved since 1990.

Staff Utilisation: Training staff at the two main administration and management centres (Highlands Public Service TC and ZIPAM) are seriously under-utilised. At ZIPAM, only 75 of the available 225 lecturing days per year were fully utilised in 1996 and the Public Service Directorate of Training frequently has to re-schedule and cancel courses. Poor management appreciation of the value of training across government departments and the lack of subsistence and travel funds for trainees are the main reasons for this situation.

Elsewhere, however, teaching staff are generally over-utilised. Enrolments are frequently determined on the basis of physical capacity to accommodate students rather than the appropriate training capacity of staff actually in-post. Given the freeze on new recruitment, staff who resign cannot be replaced and this has inevitably increased the teaching load on those who remain. This problem is especially acute where staff turnover is high (local government, nursing, public service, and youth training). One person departments are common at the youth training centres and Domboshawa NTC.

Actions to Improve Efficiency: All the survey training centres have taken various steps during the 1990s to improve the efficiency of both instructors and support staff. With respect to recruitment and staff development, these actions appear to have paid off; the quality of instructors is reported to have 'improved' at 95 per cent of the training centres (and 60 per cent of respondents stated that this improvement was 'significant'). The corresponding figures for support staff are slightly lower, but are still very high (80 per cent and 40 per cent respectively). As can be observed in Table 3.11, 70 per cent respondents rated that the provision of in-service training has increased since 1990.

3.3.5 Physical Resources Management

Utilisation: All the ministry-based training centres surveyed reported serious problems with equipment shortages, poor maintenance and obsolescence. The Directorate of Nursing is particularly concerned about widespread shortages and improvisation of equipment in teaching hospitals. The stop payment system has exacerbated already poor maintenance and timely repair of equipment because outside contractors are very wary of government requisitions.

Similarly pervasive concerns about the poor utilisation of land and buildings at the survey training centres are reported. In some instances, this is due to poor design of offices, laboratories and other buildings and/or very limited space that is available (Air Zimbabwe TS, Department of Nursing, Kaguvi ETC, Ruwa YTC). The School of Mines only has a temporary site which cannot accommodate all of its state of the art equipment. Only 30 per cent of the land at the agricultural colleges is productively utilised.

At ministry-based training centres, all repairs and alterations to permanent structures have to be undertaken by the Ministry of National Housing and Public Construction which, given the shortage of personnel and funding at the Ministry, means that very long delays have become the norm.

Actions to Improve Efficiency: All the respondents indicated that they had submitted concrete recommendations to their parent organisations for specific actions to be taken to improve the utilisation of physical facilities. However, over half reported that utilisation had 'declined' (15 per cent) or remained 'unchanged' (45 per cent) since 1990.

3.3.6 Enrolments

Pre-service Training: Pre-service enrolments increased between 1990 and 1995 at 6 out of the 8 ministry-based and 2 out of the 3 parastatal training centres for which information is available (see Table 3.12). The median increases were 27 per cent and 34.3 per cent for these two groups of centres respectively. However, it can be observed that enrolments also declined after 1993 at two other centres (Kaguvi ETC and the School of Nursing).

Generally higher pre-service enrolments at the ministry-based training centres occurred despite very sizeable falls in funding (in real terms) during the 1990s. Faced with increasingly acute funding and staffing constraints, actual enrolments have been typically much less than the maximum enrolment capacities at most of the survey centres. The demand for pre-service training among school leavers far exceeded the number of places available. For example, at the youth training centres and the School of Nursing there were 15,000 and 1000 applicants in 1996, but enrolments were only 2600 and 150 respectively.

Table 3.12 : Pre- and in-service enrolments at survey training centres, 1990 and 1995

	Pre-Service			In-Service		
	1990	1995	per cent Ä	1990	1995	per cent Ä
Public Service TCs						
Agricultural Colleges (4)	370	220	-40.5	-	-	-
Agricultural Institutes (2)	253	353	39.5	-	-	-
Directorate of Nursing	450	510	13.3	160	364	127.5
Kaguvi YTC	75	104	38.7	-	-	-
National Rehabilitation TC (3)	124	180	45.2	-	-	-
Highlands NTC	-	-	-	13114	2569	-80.4
Domboshawa NTC	-	-	-	3415	1242	-63.6
DDF	-	-	-	205	0	-
Senga TC	-	-	-	167	92	-44.9
Elangeni TC	-	-	-	19	0	-
Parastatals						
Air Zimbabwe TS	154	112	-27.3	-	-	-
PTC TC	67†	90	34.3	148	1348	810.8
School of Mines	56	88	57.1	-	-	-
ZESA NTC	†	-	-	801	1754	119.0

Unfortunately, not enough information is available on drop-out and pass rates for pre-service courses for it be possible to identify any patterns and trends during the 1990s.

In-service Training: While in-service training has increased very significantly in three areas of provision - electricity supply, nursing, and telecommunications, it has fallen sharply at the most of the public service training centres (Domboshawa, Highlands and Senga) and no training at all was offered at the DDF training centres after 1995 (see Table 3.12). At the ministry-based training centres, in-service enrolments fell by 74.7 per cent. In contrast, they increased very dramatically at both the parastatals (PTC and ZESA) for which information is available.

Annex 1 : Coping strategies adopted by survey training institutions in Tanzania

Survey institution	Actions taken
CO-OPERATIVE COLLEGE, MOSHI	• Out-reach programs for farmer groups • Consultancy services • Soliciting for full student private and employer sponsorship • Special tailored course in accountancy and marketing and materials management • Renting of unutilised facilities, running workshops and seminars.
TENGERU HORTICULTURE DEVELOPMENT INSTITUTE AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT	• Effective utilisation of trainees in horticulture production in order to raise in-house income • Short courses for horticulture farmers • Encourage private sponsorship. The Institute has little scope for income generating activities as it trains mostly extension workers in agricultural development and community work.
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF TRANSPORT	• Soliciting for full private employer sponsorship • Conducting evening courses for secondary school students • Introducing short courses in computer literacy • Renting idle or under-used facilities including the auto-mechanic workshop • Consultancy services • Considering introducing short courses in auto-electric and mechanic, & hydraulics and maximum use of auto-mechanic workshop • Considering introducing driving lessons and driving tests.
FOLK DEVELOPMENT COLLEGES (FDCs)	• Adoption of day-training schemes in tailoring, carpentry, agriculture and other production oriented activities to generate income or also save on boarding and lodging expenses • Emphasis on trainees payment of full fees • Aggressive advertising of programs offered in these centres. The FDC have more potential for income generating activities especially in the fields of automechanics, farming, brick/block laying and home economics activities.
TANESCO TRAINING CENTRE	• 90 per cent of the training program is financed by TANESCO itself and the other five per cent by private/student/employers. • There are no coping strategies other than soliciting NORAD/World Bank funding for in-service training courses for trainers and teaching equipment.
INSTITUTE OF MINERALS	• Scope for income generating activities at the Institute are currently limited as the Institute is still under construction. In future, income could be generated through laboratory analysis of mineral samples or through organising short-courses for small-scale miners, artisans and other operators (supervisory, marketing & evaluation etc.) • Field work in mining areas to be paid fully by mineral developers.
INSTITUTE OF ACCOUNTANCY, ARUSHA	• Aggressive marketing of long and special short courses offered (demand driven) • Short-term computer courses

	• Introduction of new courses to cater for demand especially in accountancy • Soliciting for full student/private and employer sponsorship.
DAR ES SALAAM SCHOOL OF ACCOUNTANCY	• Short-term specialised training courses in simple accounting, materials management and accountancy • Introducing fees and soliciting for full student/private or employer sponsorship • Marketing programs through advertising • Consultancy services • Changed programs to relate them to demands of the market

Survey institution	Actions taken
KCMC and MAWENZI	• Scope for income generating activities for nurse training is limited - other than charging full training costs to students and employing sponsors.
ARUSHA TECHNICAL COLLEGE	• Introduction of fees • Introduction of short courses in electronics engineering and maintenance, computer training and also mechanical and civil engineering.
DAR ES SALAAM TECHNICAL COLLEGE	• Introduction of fees • Adoption of market-oriented training courses • Introduction of specialised part-time and short-term courses for technicians to acquire new skills, professional courses for engineers, secondary school courses especially in science and laboratory, computer data courses, electronics and electrical courses • Furniture making and repair • Renting excess or unutilised space • Analysis of soil samples • Consultancy services
COLLEGE OF BUSINESS EDUCATION	• Aggressive marketing of courses and programs • Designing tailor made part-time and short term courses for various groups especially in book-keeping, accountancy, marketing, material management • Emphasis on full private/student or employer sponsorship • Running private secondary school courses in the evening • Design special courses for retrenchees especially in marketing accounts and how to start businesses.
HIGH PRECISION TECHNOLOGY CENTRE	• Production of spare parts and other precision tools for industrial firms • Auto-mechanic repairs and general reconditioning • Renting under utilised facilities e.g. dispensary • Visiting potential student sponsors • Preference for full tuition paying students • Limited consultancy services for industrial clients.

CHAPTER 4

PRIVATE SECTOR VET PROVISION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The existence of a vibrant, relatively large private sector providing training services to both individual and corporate clients is a central plank of demand-driven training strategies. According to the World Bank, "private schools flourish when labour markets reward private spending on training and when schools (i.e. training centres) are free to operate with minimal regulation. Good private schools increase the exposure of public institutions to competitive forces, providing a stimulus for improved efficiency and quality" (World Bank, 1991, p.42). Thus, a critical mass of efficient private sector training institutions (PSTIs) providing skills training for a wide range of occupations and jobs is essential if a demand-driven training system is to be successfully established.

Private sector VET provision occupies an important place in the overall vocational training system in both Tanzania and Zimbabwe. The predominant objective of most not-for-profit private sector training institutions (PSTIs) is to assist rural and, to a lesser extent, urban youth acquire artisanal skills that will enable them to become productively self-employed. For-profit PSTIs, on the other hand, are owned and operated by entrepreneurs on a strictly commercial basis and are heavily concentrated in the capital cities (Dar Es Salaam and Harare) and the other major urban centres. Since the advent of full scale liberalisation in the early 1990s, the role of PSTIs in both countries has expanded considerably as governments have actively encouraged private sector involvement in both the education and training sectors.

Despite the importance of PSTIs in Tanzania and Zimbabwe, no systematic research has been undertaken that describes the critical features of private sector training provision. The purpose of this chapter is to present and discuss the results of surveys of PSTIs in each country.

The main objective of each country survey was to obtain the following information:

- the size and characteristics of the training clienteles served by these training institutions
- the key characteristics of PSTIs, most notably date of establishment, facilities and staffing
- courses offered including qualifications, tuition fees, and patterns of attendance
- key performance indicators (in particular drop-out and examination pass rates)
- enrolment trends during the 1990s
- the impact of government regulations and other policies.

4.2 TANZANIA

4.2.1 PSTI provision: an overview

Private sector providers have consistently accounted for over 90 per cent of total VET enrolments in Tanzania throughout the 1980s and 1990s (see table 4.1). According to VETA records, in 1995, there were 177 not-for-profit training centres (of which 158 were run by churches) and 153 for-profit centres enrolling 14,600 and 16,440 students respectively.

Table 4.1 : Estimated enrolment of students in vocational training 1995, full and part-time.

Provider	No. of students	Percentage
VETA	3,500*	8
Government	1,840	4
Church trade schools	14,600	31
Company	10,309	22
Private	16,440	35
TOTAL	46,689	100

* Including new centres to be opened at Iringa and Mbeya in 1997
Source: VETA, Strategic Action Plan

4.2.2 Survey Design and Methodology

By law, PSTIs must fulfil certain minimum standards with respect to facilities, staffing and funding before they are allowed to sell their training services to the public. NVTD and now VETA are responsible for this registration process. There are two types of registration. Registered PSTIs have complied with all the requirements laid down by VETA. Preliminary registered centres have either applied for registration but have not yet been inspected by VETA personnel or, in a few cases, have been inspected but have failed to satisfy fully all of the minimum registration requirements.

The sample:. The survey comprised of a stratified sample of 86 PSTIs located in three of the country's most economically important regions, namely Arusha, Kilimanjaro and Dar Es Salaam. The original intention was that 25 centres would be sampled in each region and that these would be equally divided between registered, preliminary registered and non-registered PSTIs. However, a major problem in obtaining representative samples of each type of PSTI in each region is that no accurate, up to date information exists on the total population of operational private training centres. VETA relies on the 18 NVTCs to register and inspect PSTIs, but lack of staff and other resources has meant that the NVTCs have been unable to perform these functions properly. Certainly, little is known about the number of non-registered PSTIs that are operating illegally.

It was necessary therefore to first ascertain as accurately as possible the total population of registered, preliminary registered and non-registered in each of the survey regions and then take samples from these. In order to make up the survey target of 25 per region, it was originally decided to select randomly roughly equal numbers of the three kinds of PSTI. In practice, this did not work out quite as planned mainly because of the scanty information about the existence and precise location of all PSTIs (in particular in Dar Es Salaam and Arusha), but also because it was later decided to expand the sample to 35 in Dar Es Salaam.

Details of the sample profiles are presented in Table 4.2 In Kilimanjaro Region, only five registered and six non-registered PSTIs were found altogether so they were all included in the survey. The remainder of the surveyed centres comprised of preliminary registered centres which was twice the number indicated in the records kept by VETA at its head office in Dar Es Salaam. In Arusha Region, all nine of the registered PSTIs were included in the survey but, out of the nine centres recorded by VETA as having preliminary registration, only three could be located. Thus, all 14 non-registered PSTIs that were tracked down in Arusha and environs were interviewed. Given the high concentration of PSTIs in Dar Es Salaam, it was decided to randomly select half of the registered centres. Surprisingly, only five non-registered PSTIs were located in Dar Es Salaam and these were all were included in the survey. The remaining 14 PSTIs were randomly selected from the list of preliminary registered centres.

Table 4.2 : The PSTI sample frame in Tanzania

Region	Registered			Preliminary registered			Non-registered	Total	
	Veta records	Sample size	per cent	Veta records	Sample size	per cent	Sample size	Veta records	Sample size
Kilimanjaro	7	5	71.4	7	14	200.0	6	14	25
Arusha	9	9	100.0	9	3	33.3	14	18	26
Dar Es Salaam	30	15	50.0	23	14	61.0	6	53	35
Total	46	29	63.0	39	31	79.5	26	85	86

Given these difficulties in the sampling process, it is clear that the sample as a whole may not be representative of the total population of PSTIs across the three regions. Thus, in order to avoid this problem of sample selection bias, the presentation and discussion of the survey results will, wherever possible, be disaggregated into each of the three main types of PSTIs.

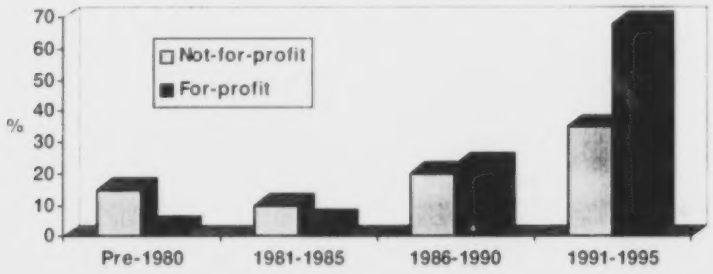
In total, 57 per cent of the sample PSTIs are for-profit although, this percentage varies significantly across the three regions (Dar 77 per cent, Arusha 62 per cent, and only 24 per cent in Kilimanjaro). The remaining 47 per cent of the survey centres are not-for-profit. All the survey PSTIs in Dar Es Salaam Region were located in or near a major urban area, 80 per cent in Arusha Region, and 60 per cent in Kilimanjaro.

Data Collection: The interviews with PSTI principals and directors were kept deliberately informal and open-ended as possible in order to create an atmosphere that was conducive to a frank, in-depth discussion about both individual PSTIs and private sector training provision in general. However, during the course of the interview all respondents were asked to provide both qualitative and quantitative information concerning key aspects of their centre's activities. Requests to be shown around each centre were nearly always granted. While note-taking during the interview was kept to a minimum, all the information that was collected was systematically recorded using a common questionnaire format as soon after the interview as possible. SPSS computer software was used to analyse the survey data. In addition, semi-structured interviews were also conducted with VETA personnel at head office and at the three vocational training centres located in the survey regions (namely Moshi NVTC, Arusha VTC and Chang'ombe NVTC in Dar Es Salaam) who are responsible for the registration and inspection of PSTIs.

4.2.3 The Evolution of PSTIs

Figure 4.1 shows the distribution of survey PSTIs by region according to their date of establishment. Broadly speaking, three distinct periods can be identified.

Figure 4.1 : Date of establishment of survey PSTIs (percentages)



(a) The pre-adjustment period. Only 14 (16.3 per cent) of the survey PSTIs were established before the advent of economic liberalisation in 1986. Only four of the for-profit PSTIs were in operation prior to this date with just one centre in Dar Es Salaam. This paucity of private sector training provision was largely the consequence of the CCM government's socialist development strategy which it had pursued since the Arusha Declaration in 1968 which, *inter alia*, strongly discouraged private sector involvement in the education and training sectors. The early emergence of a relatively sizeable group of not-for-profit PSTIs, particularly in the Kilimanjaro Region was the result of the strong moral commitment of the Lutheran and Catholic Churches to augment government efforts to provide skills training for primary school leavers, mainly for self-employment.

(b) The early-adjustment period. During the first five years or so of the Economic Reform Programme, there was a marked increase in the number of PSTIs that were established, particularly among the for-profit group in Dar Es Salaam.

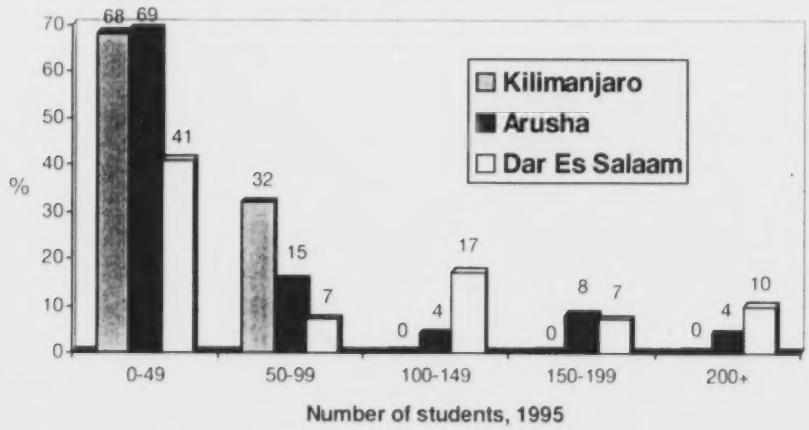
(c) The period of rapid economic liberalisation. The number of for-profit PSTIs established between 1991 and 1995 increased dramatically. Over two-thirds of the 49 for-profit centres surveyed were established during this period (although there was relatively little growth in the predominantly rural albeit relatively affluent, Kilimanjaro Region). Since 1992, the government has actively promoted the development of the private sector throughout the economy including post-primary education and training provision.

The levelling-off in the growth of church and other NGO training centres during the 1990s can be largely explained by the rapid growth of private secondary schools. Given the very strong preference of most parents and children for academic qualifications, PSTIs offering traditional artisans trades have been poorly placed to compete with these private secondary schools.

4.2.4 Clients and Courses

During 1996, almost 5000 individuals enrolled on training courses offered by the 79 survey PSTIs where enrolment data was made available. Figure 4.2 shows the size distribution of enrolments among these PSTIs. What is most striking is that the large majority of centres had only very small enrolments; nearly two-thirds had fewer than 50 students in 1996 and only 14 PSTIs (16.3 per cent) enrolled more than 100 students. These relatively large centres are located in the Arusha and Dar Es Salaam Regions. Given their illegal status, it is not surprising to find that non-registered PSTIs tended to have smaller enrolments than registered PSTIs. In the Arusha Region, for example, only one-third of registered PSTIs had fewer than 50 students in 1996 compared with 93 per cent among the non-registered centres that were surveyed.

Figure 4.2 : Total enrolments at survey PSTIs, 1996



Two-thirds of the training offered by the survey PSTIs in Tanzania during 1996 was in the traditional manual trades (see Table 4.3). Tailoring was by the most important course, accounting for almost one-third of total enrolments followed by electrical installation (13.2 per cent), auto-mechanics (8.9 per cent), carpentry (5.5 per cent) and masonry (3.1 per cent). Three quarters of these courses required full-time attendance for at least two years and less than 5 per cent were less than one year in duration (see Figure 4.3). In overall terms, the not-for-profit centres were

responsible for 55 per cent of training in the manual trades. However, it is noticeable that the for-profit training centres accounted for more than 10 per cent of enrolments in only three trades - electrical installation (87 per cent), motor mechanics (58 per cent), and tailoring (39 per cent). It would appear, therefore, that the remaining trades (including carpentry, masonry, plumbing, and welding) were not commercially viable.

Computing and secretarial courses comprised most of the remaining one-third of enrolments at the survey PSTIs. The for-profit training centres provided 69 per cent of the computing training, and 72 per cent and 100 per cent of secretarial and hotel management enrolments respectively. Over 95 per cent of computer courses were less than six months in duration and most students attended on a part-time basis whereas secretarial courses took at least one year to complete.

Table 4.3 : Enrolments by main subject area at survey PSTIs, 1996

	per cent centres offering			per cent total	of which	
Subject	NFP	FP	All	enrolments	NFP	FP
Technical						
Blacksmithing	3	0	1	0.2	100	0
Carpentry	46	2	21	5.5	99	1
Cookery	3	0	1	0.6	100	0
Electrical installation	14	16	15	13.2	13	87
Electronics	0	2	1	0.2	0	100
Masonry	24	0	10	3.1	100	0
Motor mechanics	19	18	19	8.9	42	58
Plumbing	3	0	1	0.05	100	0
Shoemaking	3	0	1	0.2	100	0
Tailoring	78	18	44	32.7	61	39
Welding	8	4	6	0.1	72	28
Commercial						
Computing	3	35	21	15.1	31	69
Hotel management	0	6	3	3.4	0	100
Secretarial	11	12	11	15.8	28	72

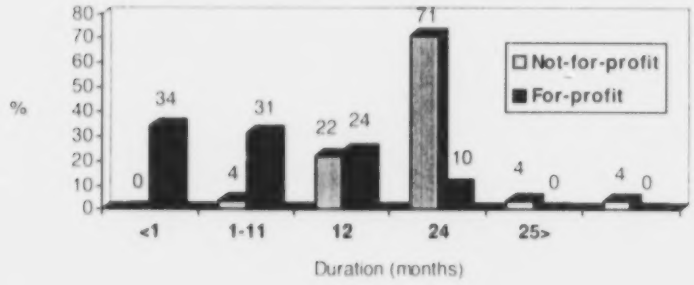
Note: NFP = not-for-profit; FP = for-profit

The marked division in the type of training provided by the not-for-profit and for-profit PSTIs is the consequence of both supply and demand side factors. During the 1970s and 1980s, not-for-profit PSTIs received financial and material assistance from external donors that enabled them to build and equip the classrooms and workshops needed to provide training in the manual trades to a mainly rural clientele. Without this support, for-profit PSTIs have been unable to meet the relatively high investment costs that are required. However, on the demand side, for-profit PSTIs have been quick to respond to the new areas of training opportunity mainly in computing and secretarial courses that have emerged in the major towns and cities with the progressive liberalisation and modernisation of the economy. But even here, the range of management and commercial courses offered is very limited especially when compared to training provision in Zimbabwe (see below)

where per capita incomes are considerably higher and with much larger and more sophisticated industrial and service sectors.

Female students accounted for 59.6 per cent and 65.1 per cent of total enrolments in 1996 at the not-for-profit and for-profit PSTIs respectively. Training in the manual trades continues to be dominated by males with females being concentrated in tailoring, secretarial and, interestingly, computing. The high proportion of female trainees at PSTIs is in marked contrast to government technical colleges and vocational training centres (see chapter 2).

Figure 4.3 : Duration of technical and commercial courses offered by PSTIs, 1996 (per cent distribution)

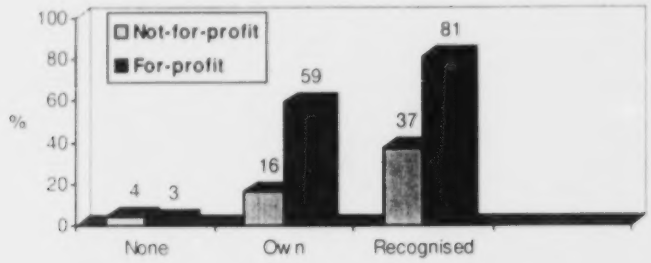


Student clienteles can be sub-divided into two main groups. (i) Individuals who have not done well enough in their primary school leaving examinations to be eligible for either government or private secondary schools and who opt therefore to do training in the traditional manual trades mainly at not-for-profit centres. (ii) Secondary school leavers who are unable to gain entry into the government tertiary education and training institutions as well as those who are already in employment. Both of these groups opt for mainly computing, secretarial and management courses that are offered by the not-for-profit PSTIs.

4.2.5 Certification and Accreditation

Figure 4.4 summarises the type of certification offered by the survey PSTIs in 1996. At most of the church and other NGO training centres, students take the government trade test Level III at the end of two-three year courses. Among the for-profit PSTIs, on the other hand, only slightly more than one-third of the centres offer recognised qualifications. This is largely because these centres provide the bulk of the computing and secretarial training and, for most of these courses, the centres only awarded their own certificates of attendance and/or proficiency.

Figure 4.4 : Course certification among survey PSTIs



Another noticeable feature is the almost total absence of foreign qualifications which is in marked contrast with the situation in Zimbabwe where there is an overwhelming reliance on British and South African qualifications. In large part, this is due to the preponderance of artisan training at PSTIs in Tanzania, but the relatively high cost of studying for foreign qualifications is also likely to be a major factor in a low income country such as Tanzania where only a tiny proportion of the population can afford such training.

4.2.6 Enrolment Growth

Table 4.4 presents average annual rates of enrolment growth at the survey PSTIs between 1990 and 1996. In overall terms, enrolments at the for-profit training centres grew far more rapidly than at the not-for-profit PSTIs where the numbers of students stagnated. The growth in female enrolments at the for-profit PSTIs in Dar Es Salaam was particularly fast although in the other two regions female enrolments actually fell (Kilimanjaro) or barely grew at all (Arusha).

Table 4.4 : Average annual rates of enrolment growth among the survey PSTIs between 1990 and 1996

Region	Kilimanjaro		Arusha		DSM		Total	
Type of PSTI	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
For-profit	15.5	-3.7	9.8	0.3	19.5	36.3	16.8	12.7
Not-for-profit	1.9	6.0	-5.1	3.8	10.3	-2.7	0.0	2.3

Time series data on enrolments for specific types of courses were not generally available, but it is clear that major areas of enrolment growth were in computing and, to a lesser extent, secretarial. The demand for training in the traditional artisan trades generally declined. At 40 per cent of the not-for-profit PSTIs, enrolments fell during this period and at another 24 per cent enrolment growth rates averaged less than 5 per cent per annum. It should be pointed out, however, that almost 30 per cent of the for-profit PSTIs also had declining enrolments during this period.

4.2.7 Facilities and Staffing

Premises: Regardless of type, region or registration status, most of the survey PSTIs have only one or two classrooms (see Table 4.5). Only seven centres (five not-for-profit and two for-profit) out of the entire sample of 86 PSTIs operated out of more than five classrooms. All but two of these larger centres were in Dar Es Salaam. Given the concentration of artisan training at the not-for-profit centres, the average number of workshops at these centres was double than at the for-profit PSTIs (1.9 compared to 0.8). Not surprisingly, non-registered PSTIs were generally smaller than registered PSTIs - 48 per cent were one-roomed compared to only 31 per cent among the registered group.

Table 4.5 : Percentage distribution of classrooms by type, region and registration status of PSTIs.

	1 – 2	3 – 5	5 >	Average
Region				
Kilimanjaro	60.0	36.0	4.0	2.7
Arusha	73.1	23.1	3.9	2.1
Dar Es Salaam	73.5	11.8	14.7	2.7
Registration				
Registered	58.6	24.1	17.2	2.1
Preliminary	71.0	22.6	6.4	2.4
Non-registered	80.0	20.0	0.0	2.0
Type				
For-profit	77.1	18.8	4.2	2.1
Not-for-profit	59.4	27.0	13.5	2.9

Almost all of the not-for-profit centres were owned by the organisations that ran them whereas nearly three-quarters of the for-profit PSTIs were in rented premises. A quick visual assessment was made of the general condition of the buildings and facilities at each PSTI visited. Over 70 per cent were rated as being adequate or better. However, the quality of facilities for the manual trades was sub-standard in well over a half of the for-profit PSTIs.

Being longer established, not-for-profit PSTIs tend to have older buildings and equipment and, with declining support from external donors, are finding it increasingly difficult to replace old and out-dated equipment. Since for-profit PSTIs are mainly reliant on rented premises, they obviously try to find the best properties that are available. In Arusha, a large number of the survey PSTIs are housed at the International Conference Centre which is well constructed and has good facilities.

Owners and Principals: Almost all owners of for-profit PSTIs in Tanzania directly manage their businesses on a day-to-day basis. Not-for-profit PSTIs generally have principals or directors who manage the centre on behalf of the church or NGO which has overall responsibility for the centre. Most are males (75.0 per cent) and African (94 per cent). There were, however, four for-profit PSTIs that were owned and managed by women. The five for-profit centres that were owned by

non-Africans were all in Arusha (2) and Dar Es Salaam (3). A large number of centres had relatively young managers - 45 per cent were aged 40 or under.

While just over half of the principals of the survey PSTIs had received higher education, 21 per cent had no more than primary schooling and another 22.9 per cent had gone no further than Form IV. Only one-third had technical and/or professional qualifications that related directly to the type(s) of training provided by the centres they managed.

Instructors: A total of 403 instructors were employed at the 86 survey PSTIs in 1996, of whom 31 per cent were women. Most instructors were employed on a full time basis. There were only 19 PSTIs (22.1 per cent of those surveyed) where part-timers comprised more than half of the total number of instructors employed. This is in marked contrast to the staffing situation at PSTIs in other countries (for example, Zimbabwe) where there is a much greater reliance on part-time instructors and is largely due to the preponderance of longer term (i.e. 2-3 year) technical courses in Tanzania coupled with the relatively high representation of not-for-profit centres.

Only a small minority of instructors had received higher education and almost one-quarter had no more than primary education. Almost all technical trade instructors have at least a government trade test III, but only 79 have a technician qualification. One third had more than 10 years of experience and another 36 per cent had between 5-10 years of experience.

Survey respondents were requested to provide information on the minimum and maximum salaries paid to instructors at their centres. It can be observed in Table 4.6 that median minimum and maximum salaries ranged from T.Sh. 28-50,000 per month and T.Sh. 39-80,000 per month respectively. This compares with a per capita income of approximately T.Sh. 7,000 per month in 1996. For-profit survey PSTIs generally paid higher salaries than not-for-profit centres which largely reflects the greater demand and marketability for the courses that they offer (i.e. commercial subject areas) and the higher fees that these courses command.

Table 4.6 : Median minimum and maximum salaries among survey PSTIs, 1996 (T.sh.'000/month)

Salary	Type of PSTI	Lower quartile	Median	Upper quartile
Minimum	Not-for-profit	20	28	36
	For-profit	25	38	50
Maximum	Not-for-profit	39	39	50
	For-profit	40	50	70

Note: Figures have been rounded to the nearest thousand.

4.2.8 Finance

Course Fees: Table 4.7 shows median annual fees charged by the survey PSTIs in Tanzania for the main courses offered in 1996. Fees at the for-profit centres were generally higher than at the not-for-profit PSTIs (with electrical installation being the main exception). The main reasons for this fee differential are that not-for-profit centres have relied much more heavily on external donations and have not had to generate profits. It is interesting to note that, among both groups of centres, median fees were lowest in Dar Es Salaam and highest in Arusha Region.

Table 4.7 : Median fees for selected courses charged by survey PSTIs by region, 1996 (T.Sh. '000 per annum)

	Not-for-profit			For-profit		
Course	Kilimanjaro	Arusha	DSM	Kilimanjaro	Arusha	DSM
Carpentry	45.0	60.0	-	-	-	-
Computing	-	30.0	-	-	125.0	50.0
Secretarial	35.0	40.0	20.3	195.0	54.5	50.0
Tailoring	30.0	40.0	30.2	-	48.0	36.0
Electrical installation	60.0	80.0	40.0	55.0	-	33.0
Masonry	45.0	80.0	-	-	-	-
Motor vehicle mechanics	50.0	80.0	40.0	100.0	45.0	54.0

The Human Resources Development Survey of 1993/94 estimated annual households per capita expenditures to be T.Sh. 266,000 in Dar Es Salaam, T.Sh.143,000 in other urban areas and T.Sh. 82,000 in rural areas. Time series data on course fees were only collected for 1990. In that year, median fees at not-for-profit and for-profit PSTIs ranged from T.Sh 10-20,000 and T.Sh.20-40,000 respectively. By 1993/94, it is likely that overall fee levels increased by at least 100 per cent for the not-for-profit centres and 50 per cent among the for-profit group. Assuming this to be the case, the cheapest courses at the not-for-profit PSTIs amounted to approximately 7.5 per cent of average per capita expenditure in Dar Es Salaam and 22.5 per cent in rural areas. The corresponding figures for the most expensive courses at for-profit centres are 15 per cent and 45 per cent respectively. The HRD Survey estimated that household expenditure on education and training was only 1-2 per cent of total expenditure. Thus, it is clear that both not-for-profit and for-profit training courses are relatively very costly and are only affordable among the better-off households.

Access to these courses is likely to have worsened still further since the early 1990s mainly because churches and NGOs have been forced to increase their fees significantly in order to make good the loss of income from external donors. Between 1990 and 1996, the median fees for courses at not-for-profit centres increased by 200-300 per cent compared to only 75-100 per cent among the for-profit centres. There has occurred, therefore, a considerable convergence in the fees charged by the two groups of PSTIs since 1990. Data on individual and household expenditure for 1996 are not available, but it is unlikely that household expenditures increased by similar orders of magnitude. The cost of living index rose by 406 per cent during this seven year period and it is very unlikely that real incomes increased appreciably for the large majority of households. In short, therefore, the

affordability of private sector training courses probably declined appreciably. This is the key factor accounting for the decline or stagnation in enrolments for the traditional artisan courses offered by many churches and NGOs.

Average annual household expenditure per student enrolled at a private secondary schools was reported by the HRD Survey to be T.Sh. 53,904 in Dar Es Salaam in 1993/94, T.Sh. 53140 in other urban areas and T.Sh. 46,872 in rural Tanzania. It would appear, therefore, that even the most expensive courses offered by the not-for-profit centres (especially electrical installation and motor vehicle mechanics) were reasonably price-competitive compared to the total costs of private secondary school education. Courses such as carpentry, masonry and tailoring were considerably cheaper, but were still unable to attract students and enrolments have suffered as a result.

Sources of Income: Survey respondents were requested to estimate the shares of the total income derived from fees, donations, and own production in 1990 and 1996. The mean value of these different shares for each year are presented in Table 4.8. During this seven-year period, the mean share value of donor contributions fell from 31 to 20 per cent among the not-for-profit survey PSTIs. Their response has been to increase fees. In 1996, 70 per cent of for-profit and nearly 50 per cent of not-for-profit survey PSTIs were entirely dependent on fee income. In 1990, the corresponding figures were 73 per cent and 31 per cent respectively. Interestingly, the relative importance of income generated from the production activities of church and NGO training centres appears to have fallen from what was already a relatively low level of only 9.4 per cent of total income in 1990. By 1996, the mean share value of income generated from these activities was only 6.5 per cent. Only two not-for-profit centres managed to raise more than half of their income from their own production activities in 1996. Given the social and economic objectives of church and NGO training centres, most would have preferred to make up the shortfalls in funding caused by declining donor support by increasing their own income generation activities. Their failure to do so may well be due to the difficulties of sustaining and promoting income generating activities in the context of depressed rural incomes.

Table 4.8 : Changes in source of income among survey PSTIs between 1990 and 1996

	Not-for-profit		For-profit	
Source of income	1990	1996	1990	1996
Fees	59.4	73.1	74.6	83.0
Donors	31.1	20.4	6.1	0.9
Own production	9.4	6.5	19.3	16.0

4.2.9 Drop-out and Examination Pass Rates

Repetition, drop-out and examination pass rates are the most common indicators used to assess the quality and internal efficiency of education and training institutions. Table 4.9 summarises the drop-out, examination and (successful) completion rates for the eight main courses offered by the survey PSTIs and which were trade tested. Computing courses are not included because most were short term and were not formally certified.

Table 4.9 : Drop-out, pass and completion rates for main courses offered by survey PSTIs, 1996

	Drop-out rate			Pass rate			Completion rate		
	FP	NFP	All	FP	NFP	All	FP	NFP	All
Electrical installation	21	27	22	73	23	62	57	17	
Carpentry	-	45	45	-	59	59	-	33	
Masonry	-	34	34	-	39	39	-	32	
Motor mechanics	8	31	20	72	42	58	66	29	
Secretarial	30	14	23	66	76	71	47	65	
Tailoring	18	14	35	77	42	52	64	25	
Welding	-	52	52	-	27	27	-	13	
Overall	20	36	31	72	46	56	58	29	

Note: NFP = not-for-profit; FP = for-profit

Drop-out rates were particularly high for all the courses offered by the not-for-profit centres, with the notable exception of secretarial. Between 40-50 per cent of students failed to finish carpentry, masonry and welding courses. There are two main reasons for these high drop-out rates. First, the courses offered by churches and other NGOs are typically at least two years in duration. Once students have acquired basic skills in their chosen trades, many see little point continuing to the end of their courses and acquiring a trade test certificate since nearly all of them are destined to become self-employed or will look for some kind of wage employment in the informal sector where trade tests are not valued to any great extent. This is particularly the case among the rural-based church and NGO training centres which, among the survey PSTIs, are heavily concentrated in the Kilimanjaro Region. Secondly, the inability to pay for this training is a major factor. Generally speaking, only better-off parents are able to send their children to private academic secondary schools. Lower status technical training centres, on the other hand, tend to attract students from poorer families who have failed to pass the primary school leaving examination and are therefore unable to make the transition to secondary education. Many parents find it difficult to keep up with the payment of fees for the entire duration of courses and are obliged to withdraw their children.

Drop-outs at the for-profit PSTIs were generally lower mainly because (i) they did not offer courses such as masonry and welding for which there was clearly limited demand and which, therefore, were not commercially viable; and (ii) they were located in urban areas where household incomes tend to be higher and where opportunities for formal sector employment are the greatest.

Pass rates among students taking trade test III examinations were also very low at the not-for-profit survey PSTIs, both in absolute terms and in relation to the performance among students at the for-profit centres. While secretarial courses are an interesting exception, the overall pass rate for students at the not-for-profit centres was only 46 per cent compared with 72 per cent at the for-profit PSTIs. Just why there is such a large difference in examination pass rates is not altogether clear, but the relatively high proportion of rural students at church and NGO centres with probably lower academic attainment levels at primary school could be a key factor. In addition, the administration of the trade tests themselves is also likely to be an important part of the explanation.

Numerous survey respondents, mainly from not-for-profit centres, stated that trade test practical and theory examination papers are sent to centres well in advance (sometimes up to an week) of the actual examination date and that students at many for-profit centres are not only shown the papers, but are actively assisted in preparing answers.

High drop-out coupled with poor examination pass rates means that, for most of the courses offered at the not-for-profit PSTIs, fewer than one in three of their students successfully completed their courses in 1995. Among the for-profit centres, completion rates were much higher. Whereas only 29 per cent of students successfully completed their courses among the not-for-profit PSTIs that were surveyed, this figure was 58 per cent (i.e. exactly double) at the for-profit centres. With such low completion rates, many not-for-profit centres are faced with a major crisis which seriously threatens their continued existence as training organisations.

4.2.10 Government Policy and Practice

At the regional level, responsibility for the registration and inspection of PSTIs is delegated by VETA Head Office to national vocational training centres. At the time of the survey, half of the non-registered (13 out of 26) and one-quarter of the preliminary registered PSTIs (8 out of 31) had been operating for more than six years. Post-registration inspections are also very rarely made with an average of 0.5 visits during the last five years being reported by registered and preliminary PSTIs. Serious shortages of suitably qualified and experienced staff coupled with a chronic lack of funding for subsistence and travel have been the main reasons why VETA has been largely unable to undertake satisfactorily its registration and inspection functions. However, with VETA training centres being expected to generate their own income from student fees, they are increasingly competing with PSTIs in their immediate localities which, in turn may adversely affect their commitment to promote the development of PSTIs.

Table 4.10 shows that most survey respondents have serious reservations about the support they had received from VETA and other government institutions. These negative perceptions appear to be most acute in Dar Es Salaam where nearly one-third of respondents rated government agencies as being 'very unsupportive'. Not-for-profit and for-profit PSTIs were equally critical, but a significantly higher proportion of non-registered PSTIs stated that the government was 'very unsupportive' which may be a reflection of their impatience and frustration at having to wait so long to become legally registered.

Table 4.10 : Perceptions of government support among survey PSTIs, 1996 (percentages)

	Very unsupportive	Unsupportive	Indifferent	Supportive	Very supportive
Region					
Kilimanjaro	8.7	73.9	4.3	8.7	4.3
Arusha	16.0	72.0	8.0	4.0	0.0
Dar Es Salaam	30.3	54.5	6.1	9.1	0.0
Type of centre					
For-profit	21.7	60.9	10.9	6.5	0.0
Non-for-profit	17.1	71.4	0.0	8.6	2.9
Registration status					
Registered	17.9	71.4	7.1	3.6	0.0
Preliminary registered	16.1	64.5	0.0	16.1	3.2
Unregistered	27.3	59.1	13.6	0.0	0.0

Survey respondents were also asked the following open-ended question: How could VETA and other government agencies be more supportive? Table 4.11 shows that three main areas were identified, namely better inspection and management of trade tests and access to the training levy funds that have been collected from employers since 1995 and which, for the foreseeable future, are to be exclusively used to support VETA. Given their precarious financial situation coupled with their concerns about the poor management of the trade test system, it is perhaps not surprising to find that relatively more not-for-profit PSTIs stated that levy funds should be used to support their training activities and that urgent steps need to be taken to improve trade testing.

Table 4.11 : Perception among PSTI respondents of main areas of improvements by VETA and other government agencies (percentages)

	Trade Tests	Inspections	Use of training levy
Region			
Kilimanjaro	48	44	48
Arusha	50	31	65
Dar Es Salaam	49	20	40
Type of centre			
For-profit	45	41	43
Non-for-profit	54	43	59
Registration status			
Registered	55	48	69
Preliminary registered	51	54	42
Unregistered	40	20	40

Furthermore, a significantly higher proportion of registered PSTIs (69 per cent compared to only 40 per cent among preliminary and non-registered centres) also would like to be able to access training levy funds.

4.3 ZIMBABWE: REGISTERED PSTIs

4.3.1 Survey Design and Methodology

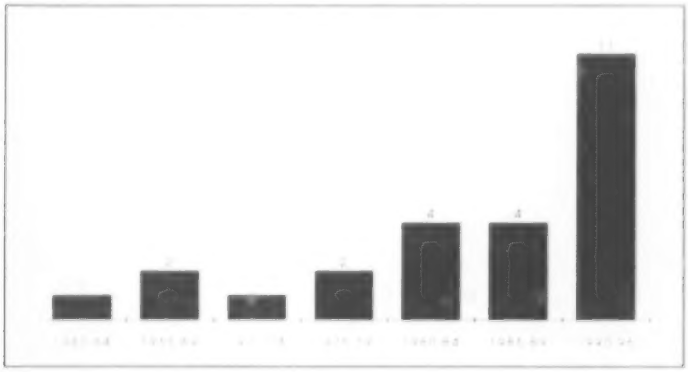
Two surveys of registered and unregistered PSTIs were undertaken in Harare in early 1997. This section summarises the main findings of the survey of registered training centres. A random sample of 25 registered PSTIs was selected (out of a total of 110 in Harare) and interviews conducted with proprietors and/or principals.

4.3.2 The Evolution of Registered PSTIs

Pre-Adjustment: In common with most other countries in sub-Saharan Africa, PSTIs in Zimbabwe had to contend with a very disabling policy environment prior to economic liberalisation in 1990. Strict registration requirements were imposed and government discouraged PSTIs from offering national vocational qualifications. Not surprisingly, therefore, private sector training provision remained fairly limited. Six of the survey PSTIs were established before 1980 and another eight between 1980 and 1989. Those registered prior to Independence were predominantly owned and managed by not-for-profit (mainly church) organisations.

There are three main reasons for the slow growth of PSTIs during the 1980s. First, academic qualifications, and in particular 'O' levels and Cambridge Certificate largely determined access to 'good' jobs in the formal sector. Thus, acquiring these qualifications was the main priority for most young people during this period. Secondly, the Mugabe government was formally committed to Marxism-Leninism and was, therefore, ideologically opposed to private sector training provision which was regarded as exploitative, (particularly of low income Africans) and, with the rapid expansion of student enrolments at public sector training institutions, was seen as increasingly unnecessary (see Box 2).

Figure 4.5 : Date of establishment among survey PSTIs



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And thirdly, the general unavailability of foreign exchange severely limited the scope for individuals to pursue VET courses leading to foreign qualifications. Not only was FOREX not readily available to pay for student registration and examination fees with foreign institutes and other examination bodies, but the shortage of foreign exchange meant that imports of new production technologies, particular information technology remained very limited. Consequently, there was little demand for the skills training and related qualifications associated with these new technologies. Throughout this period, correspondence colleges (in particular Rapid Results and the Central African Correspondence College) were the preferred choice of the large majority of Africans who wanted to obtain vocational qualifications through their own initiatives.

Box 2. The Disabling Policy Environment

For most of the post-Independence period, government policies and actions towards PSTIs have been openly adversarial and competitive. Politicians and senior policy makers at the Ministry of Labour (which, up until the creation of the MOHE in 1988, had overall responsibility for registration and inspection of PSTIs) and subsequently, the MOHE stated (both publicly and privately) that they could see no role for PSTIs and actively discouraged them. This included very stringent registration requirements which suited existing providers but clearly posed serious obstacles for potential new entrants,[1] discouraging PSTIs from offering national vocational qualifications, only allowing PSTIs to offer new courses where they could make a convincing case that such provision was justified, and arguing that PSTIs should be forced to offer either academic or vocational training, but not both.[2] The MOHE also established its own distance education college (funded largely with donor funds) in an attempt to force the correspondence colleges out of business.[3]

The range of courses available was also limited and was dominated by secretarial courses based on traditional office skills and the Chartered Institute of Secretaries (CIS) professional accountancy qualification. Government policy was to replace foreign with local qualifications. City and Guilds of the London Institute, the most important.

Economic liberalisation since 1990: The progressive liberalisation of the economy and government VET policies since 1990 has had a profound impact on the extent and type of private sector VET provision. In particular, the government increasingly recognises that public training institutions can only satisfy a small fraction of the rapidly growing demand for VET. Consequently, for both ideological and pragmatic reasons, VET policy has shifted in favour of private sector VET provision although there is still a long way to go before a fully enabling policy environment has been created.

The number of for-profit PSTIs has mushroomed since the early 1990s. 11 out of the 25 survey PSTIs (44 per cent) were established in the space of just seven years. Barriers to entry

[1]. Only around one in ten applications for PSTI registration were approved in the mid-late 1980s.

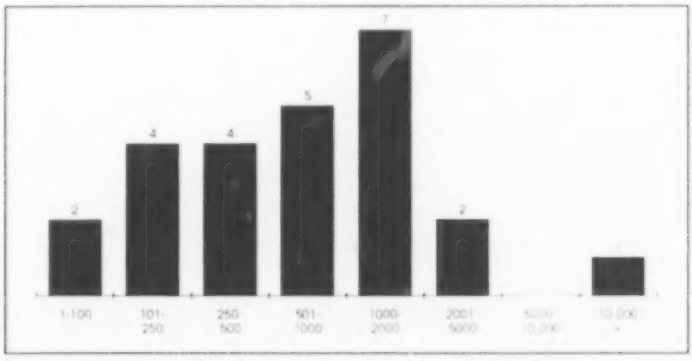
[2]. Other more direct attempts were made by the government against private sector trainers. For example, soon after Independence, a senior official at the Ministry of Labour tried to get the African instructors at one of the largest PSTIs to leave and become civil servants.

[3]. The Zimbabwe Institute of Distance of Education (ZIDE) was established in order to produce learning materials for mainly academic courses. It failed, however, to make any major inroads on the markets of the major distance education colleges.

are not particularly high and many centres have been established by former public servants, including a significant proportion of women. Prior to 1990, only three out of the 11 for-profit PSTIs were African owned and managed. However, all but three of the 10 for-profit PSTIs that have been established during the 1990s have been set-up by African entrepreneurs.

Interestingly, not-for-profit PSTIs have fared generally less well than for-profit training centres largely because of significant reductions in the levels of financial support from donors. In order to survive, many of these NGOs have been forced to commercialise all or at least some of their training activities. This has meant that they are increasingly catering for students who are in relatively well paid jobs or come from more privileged socio-economic backgrounds rather than the poor and other disadvantaged groups in both rural and urban areas that they were originally intended to help.

Figure 4.6: Size distribution of survey PSTIs



4.3.3 Clients and Courses

The scale of private sector training provision in Harare is impressive Between them, the 25 survey PSTIs sold a wide variety of training services to nearly 35,000 individuals in 1996. The largest centre had over 11,000 enrolments while the smallest had only 26. The median enrolment was 500 (see figure 4.6). Grossing up this figure to include the other registered as well as unregistered PSTIs in the country, it is likely that nearly 180,000 individuals, which is five per cent of the economically active population, undertook some form of private sector training during 1996.

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Table 4.12 : Enrolments by main subject area at the survey PSTIs, 1996

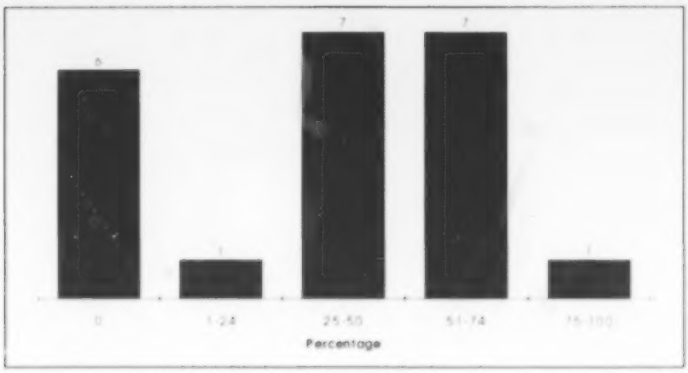
Subject area	Number of centres		Total enrolments	
	Specialist[a]	Others	Number	% Total
Academic	0	8	4814	14.3
Secretarial	4	12	}	
Commercial	1	12	} 12906	38.3
Computing	8	11	11871	35.2
Clothing	1	4	1459	4.3
Technical	1	4[b]	1570	4.7
Other	0	3[c]	1082	3.2
Total	15	-	33702	100.0

a more than 75 per cent of enrolments
b computer servicing
c mainly 'English as a second language'

Table 4.12 shows that commercial, secretarial and computing training courses accounted for nearly three-quarters of all enrolments at the survey PSTIs whereas technical training in trades (such as motor mechanics, masonry and electrical installation) comprised barely five per cent. A very wide range of commercial courses are available including accounting, marketing, bookkeeping, general credit and supervisory management, salesmanship, purchasing and supplies, banking, and hotel and tourism management. This enrolment pattern is the outcome of both supply and demand side factors. The informal sector is relatively small in Harare and the demand for artisans by employers in the formal sector has declined since the start of adjustment. On the supply side, the high capital and running costs of providing technical training that satisfies government registration requirements deters most training entrepreneurs.

There are three main client groups for these courses. The first comprises individuals who are already in wage employment in the formal sector who are seeking to obtain relevant professional and other vocational qualifications in order to advance their careers and thus improve their incomes. About two thirds of all enrolments on commercial and computing courses come from this client group. Since most are in full-time employment, almost all attend evening classes after work. The second group are school leavers who are either re-sitting secondary school leaving qualifications or are full time students on secretarial, commercial, clothing and technical courses. And the third group are trainees directly sponsored by employers as part of in-house staff development activities. In total, almost 60 per cent of all PSTI students were women which is marked contrast to government post-secondary VET centres where only 30.0 per cent of students were female in 1996.

Figure 4.7 : Evening class students as a percentage of total enrolments among survey PSTIs



4.3.4 Enrolment Growth

Enrolments at for-profit PSTIs have grown extremely fast since 1990. The average annual rates of enrolment growth was 12.4 per cent between 1990 and 1996. Enrolment growth among not for-profit PSTIs has been equally impressive.

This high growth in the demand for the courses offered by PSTIs has been fuelled by a number of factors. Undoubtedly, the de facto change in government policy towards private sector training provision has been of decisive importance. This has allowed PSTIs to respond to the enormous excess demand for VET that cannot be met by government training centres. Furthermore, publicly-funded centres continue to offer mainly traditional artisan/technical courses whereas it is management, computing, secretarial and other commercial skills that are in greatest demand by both employers and individuals. Not only have public sector training institutions been generally slow to match their course offerings with changes in the patterns of demand, but there is a widespread perception that the quality of training has fallen at most centres during the 1990s. Many employers believe that additional training for employees relying, where necessary, on overseas qualifications can compensate for the increasingly serious shortcomings (both in terms of relevance and quality) of public sector provision.

Given that employment opportunities in the formal sector have fallen, it is clear that the growth in demand for VET is to a considerable extent the consequence of an on-going process of qualification escalation. Economic liberalisation has also had a dramatic impact on the type of qualifications that are available. Prior to adjustment, chronic shortages of foreign exchange meant that it was very difficult for individuals to study for foreign qualifications and they were forced therefore to rely on a very limited range of national courses. Now that foreign exchange is freely available, the number of foreign training courses, mainly in commercial and computing subject areas has grown enormously. For example, the largest PSTI in Harare offered only four commercial courses in 1990, but by 1996 this had increased to 24 and the number of students taking these courses tripled. Both employers and individuals have a strong preference for overseas qualifications because they are generally regarded as being of higher quality with globally-applied standards and, for individuals, they provide a competitive edge in increasingly tight labour markets both nationally and internationally. While UK professional

institutes and examination boards predominate, with the ending of apartheid and the normalisation of political and economic relations with South Africa, there has been a marked increase in the presence of South African qualification awarding bodies.

Accreditation by both local and foreign examination bodies is generally non-existent or very lax which means that it is relatively easy for PSTIs to offer these courses. This in marked contrast to national examinations where fairly strict standards are applied before accreditation is granted. Up until the early 1990s, the government actively discouraged PSTIs from offering national qualifications. Since then, however, the policy has been reversed and PSTIs seeking registration are now formally required to offer national courses. Government attempts, therefore, to localise professional and vocational courses have intensified precisely at the same time as training markets have become increasingly dominated by foreign courses and qualifications. This is part of a wider global phenomenon where trade in education and training services is growing extremely fast and truly international education and training markets are rapidly emerging.

The increasing costs of studying overseas is also another important factor that has contributed to the growth of PSTI enrolments. Very large devaluations coupled with increasingly stringent immigration controls has resulted in large numbers of individuals who would have in the past gone overseas for training, being obliged to seek this training in-country. Local PSTIs offering internationally recognised qualifications represent, therefore, a second best alternative to overseas training.

While PSTI enrolments in commercial, computing and secretarial courses have expanded rapidly, those for academic, clothing technology and other technical subjects have, in overall terms, stagnated. Declining real incomes among lower income target groups and saturated markets in some areas are the principal causes. Traditionally, on the job training has been the dominant mode of skill acquisition in the small and microenterprise sector.

4.3.5 Facilities and Staffing

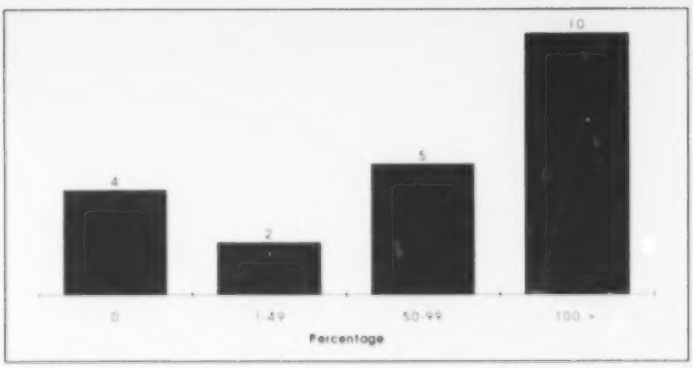
To be commercially viable, PSTIs in Harare have to be located in or very near the city centre. Given the chronic shortage of affordable office space to rent, finding suitable premises is invariably the biggest challenge for PSTI entrepreneurs. Rents typically account for 25-30 per cent of total recurrent costs. While the majority of surveyed centres (16 out of 25) had more than six classrooms, with large numbers of students, over-crowding is the norm. Most 'classrooms' are very small and cramped.

Apart from a blackboard, no other equipment is normally used to teach commercial courses. Only a handful of centres have more advanced teaching equipment (such as videos and overhead projectors).

Only a small minority (5-6) of the surveyed centres employed experienced and well qualified full-time instructors. In order to attract and retain these instructors, they had to pay relatively high salaries which, in turn, meant that their tuition fees were also higher. There was a very a very heavy reliance on part-time instructors. Excluding principals, part-timers make up over half of the teaching staff at over three-quarters of the survey centres. The preponderance of

part-time instructors is largely due to the importance of the evening class market and the desire of proprietors to minimise costs.

Figure 4.8 : Reliance of part-time instructors among the survey PSTIs, early 1997



4.3.6 Affordability, Sources of Income and Profitability

The tuition fees for the main courses offered by the survey PSTIs are presented in Table 4.13. Except for computer short courses, these fees are charged on a monthly basis. It can be observed that the overall level of fees for commercial, computing and secretarial courses are significantly higher than for academic, clothing technology and technical courses. The core clientele for the first group of courses are individuals who are already in relatively well paid jobs and school leavers from middle class family backgrounds. Furthermore, the demand for these courses has grown very rapidly during the 1990s. By contrast, clothing technology and technical training are targeted at individuals from low income groups residing mainly in the high density areas who want to acquire vocational skills in order to become self-employed. Given the relatively low fees charged at most government schools, it has proved difficult for PSTIs to charge significantly higher fees for 'O' and 'A' level courses. For this reason, academic courses are being phased out at most PSTIs.

Another noticeable feature is the wide range of fees charged for the same or similar courses by the survey PSTIs. As noted earlier, there are large differences in the quality and hence the costs of training provided. Almost all PSTIs rely on a cost plus formulae in setting course fees. Consequently, these differences in costs per student are directly reflected in course fees. However, ability to pay is another important factor that influences the size of the margin that is generated from each student. Two other factors are worth mentioning. First, the high prestige of a few colleges (in particular Centre X) is an important factor that serves to differentiate still further the training that is being offered both among prospective students and employers. And secondly, relevant market information is not readily available. Most PSTIs are, in fact, quite secretive about their fees, pass rates and other relevant information concerning the quality and efficacy of the training provided. Because it so difficult for prospective students to assess in a reasonably objective manner identical courses that are often being offered by a number of

PSTIs, it is likely that price/fee differentials are considerably higher than they would otherwise be had this information been freely available in the first place (see Box 3).

The tuition fees charged by most of the survey PSTIs, in particular for commercial, computing and secretarial courses, are well beyond the reach of the poor. Median tuition fees for most of these courses are at least equivalent to the minimum wage of Z$480 per month in 1996. In addition to tuition costs, registration and examination fees also have to be paid. These additional outlays frequently amount to a very sizeable proportion of the total training costs. The CIMA accountancy qualification is a good example. Even assuming that the student is able to complete the full course in the minimum period of four years (which given very low pass rates is very unlikely), total training costs are likely to be in the region of Z$40,000.[4] Sub-professional foreign qualifications (such as ACP, IAC, ICM, and LCCI) are less costly, (ranging from around Z$5000 to Z$15,000 per course). While local qualifications tend to lack prestige, initial and annual registration and examination fees are generally 3-4 times less than for equivalent foreign courses. As the Zimbabwean dollar has depreciated during the 1990s, the costs of acquiring foreign qualifications has increased very rapidly. To reiterate, therefore, the bulk of the training services offered by registered PSTIs, at least in Harare, are purchased mainly by the better off sections of the community who are employed in predominantly white collar jobs.

[4]. This includes the cost of the stipulated textbook per course. For most courses these are imported and are usually in the price range Z$300-500 per book.

Table 4.13 : Tuition fees for selected courses at PSTIs in and outside Harare, 1996 (Z$/month)

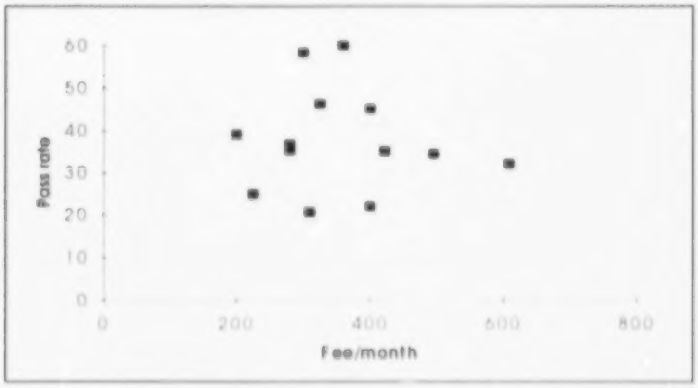
Full Course	Number Centres	Harare ÷ Minimum	Harare ÷ Median	Harare ÷ Maximum	Number Centres	Outside Harare Minimum	Outside Harare Median	Outside Harare Maximum
COMMERCIAL								
Foundation (ACCA)	3	420	580	690	0	-	-	-
Part A (CIS)	5	240	420	585	1	355	-	-
Marketing diploma	7	280	400	616	1	225	-	-
Accounting technician certificate (ZAAT)	3	355	375	422	2	180	-	3320
Marketing diploma (IMM)	4	355	470	633	0	-	-	-
Business studies diploma (FBS)	3	253	355	654	1	140	-	-
Executive secretarial (Pitman)	14	125	537	1790	7	160	308	485
ACADEMIC								
'O' levels 1	4	90	105	120	2	70	-	80
5	5	120	160	350	4	100	162	200
'A' levels 1	3	100	115	210	2	80	-	95
3	4	145	152	686	4	135	175	210
CLOTHING								
Registered	6	85	140	267	1	80	-	-
Non-registered	3	100	110	150	10	53	81	180
MOTOR MECHANICS								
Registered	1	174	-	-	4	80	147	300
Non-registered	1	167	-	-	0	-	-	-
COMPUTING								
Computer programming certificate (ACP)	4	280	450	500	2	400	436	472
Computer studies certificate (HEXCO)	4	540	580	583	-	-	-	-
Computer studies diploma (HEXCO)	3	500	583	583	-	-	-	-
Computer studies certificate (IDPM)	2	383	-	550	-	-	-	-
Word processing introduction (own) per course:								
Registered	12	200	370	500	5	115	300	450
Non-registered	13	100	390	600	1	100	-	-

÷ excludes Chitungwiza

Box 3: Tuition fees and examination performance: the LCCI full diploma in marketing.

The LCCI's full diploma in marketing is one of the most popular commercial courses in Zimbabwe. Figure 4.9 is a scatter diagram of the tuition fees charged by the 10 PSTIs in Harare that offered this course in 1996 and the examination pass rates of students at each of these centres. If markets are functioning well, one would expect to see a fairly close positive relationship between these two variables since relatively higher performing PSTIs are likely to have higher costs (in order to deliver better quality training) as well as being able to charge higher prices because prospective students will be attracted to them. However, it can be observed that no relationship of this kind exists among the PSTIs offering the LCCI marketing diploma.[5] If anything, the relationship could even be negative with the some of PSTIs with the highest fees having among the lowest pass rates.[6] This is symptomatic of the lack of relevant market information that is readily available to prospective students. The larger, longer established PSTIs may, therefore, be attracting more students not because they provide better quality training but simply because of their overall reputation and status value coupled with their ability to advertise heavily.

Figure 4.9 : Relationship between fees charged and pass rates at PSTIs offering the LCCI marketing diploma



The relatively high direct costs of studying at PSTIs (tuition and examination fees, textbooks, travel) means that this form of training provision is only affordable by the better off and, in particular, among individuals who already have 'good jobs' in the formal sector. Median tuition fees for most of the courses offered by the survey PSTIs were at least equivalent to the minimum wage of $480 per month in 1996. While the fees charged by the NGO training centres are usually lower than for equivalent courses offered by for-profit PSTIs, they are still beyond the financial reach of individuals from the poorest households. Since the early 1990s, not-for-profit centres have had to rely increasingly on tuition fees as support from donors has

[5]. Another possible relationship is that fees at larger PSTIs could be lower because of economies of scale and lower unit costs per student but again there is no discernible relationship between enrolments and fees among the 10 PSTIs offering the LCCI marketing diploma.

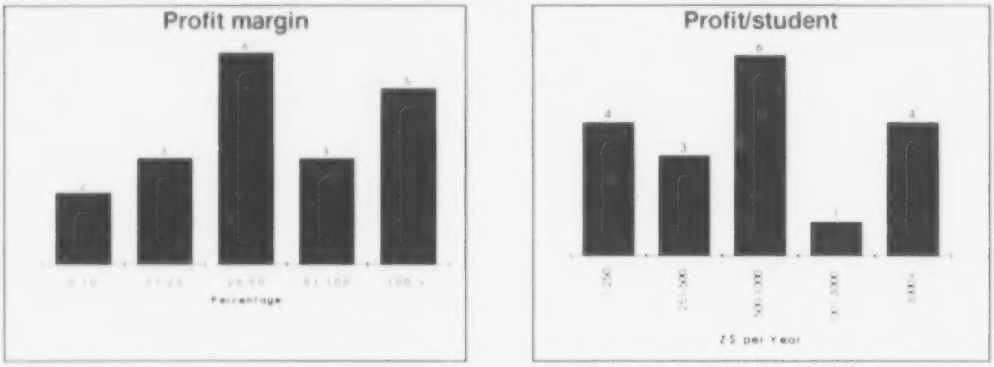
[6]. The correlation coefficient is negative (-0.7) but it is not statistically significant.

declined. Consequently, fee increases among NGO centres have generally been much higher than at for-profit PSTIs and there has occurred a considerable convergence of fees charged between the two types of private sector providers. At the same time, real incomes have fallen quite considerably among large sections of the population so that, if anything, courses offered by PSTIs have become even less affordable for the poor.

Given the social and economic objectives of church and other NGO training centres, most would prefer to make up shortfalls in funding caused by declining donor support by increasing income earned from their own production activities. But, they have generally not been successful in doing so.

Detailed information was not requested on turnover, costs and profits. However, rough estimates have been derived on the basis of the information that was requested on enrolments, course fees and total average monthly operating costs. Nearly half of the survey had operating profit margins of over 50 per cent in 1996. The least profitable centres are generally those that have been recently established as well a group of 2-3 centres that have failed to flourish in increasingly competitive markets for training services.

Figure 4.10 : Profit margins and profit per student among survey PSTIs, 1996



Note: Profit margin is operating profit expressed as a percentage of total recurrent costs

4.3.7 Drop-Out and Examination Pass Rates

Only fairly limited data could be collected on the 'internal efficiency' of the survey PSTIs. However, drop-out rates appear to be 10-25 per cent for most courses which, given the relatively high training costs involved, are surprisingly low. While pass rates for individual examinations sat by students in 1996 were generally over 50 per cent, typically fewer than three percent of all students registered with the main local and foreign professional institutes successfully completed all the professional examinations in 1996. One of the main reasons for these low completion rates is that very large proportions of students (usually at least half) are studying on their own and have to rely on learning materials produced by correspondence colleges. But senior officials of the local accountancy and computing associations also indicated that between one-third to one-half of the instruction offered by PSTIs in Harare was, in their opinion, of a sub-standard quality.

4.3.8 Registration and Inspection

While there has been a distinct improvement in the policy environment for PSTIs, there are still serious weaknesses. For new entrants, the registration process is very slow, typically taking 6-12 months. On the other hand, many established PSTIs complain that registration standards have fallen to unacceptably low levels, and that the standard of training at some new PSTIs is unacceptably low. MOHE inspections are very rare and only under exceptional circumstances are centres de-registered. In a number of key respects, therefore, MOHE policy and practice have become too permissive.

The MOHE is seriously under-resourced to be able to register and inspect PSTIs in an efficient and effective manner. Only three officers were employed in 1997 to cover all secretarial, computing and commercial private sector training provision.

Policy transparency and credibility are also major issues. No policy document or statement has ever been produced that clearly outlines the new government's policy stance on PSTIs. It is obviously important that the government's new approach to private sector provision is seen as credible and 'locked-in'. Many PSTI proprietors and principals remain suspicious of the MOHE and government policy.

4.4 ZIMBABWE: NON-REGISTERED PSTIs

4.4.1. Survey design and methodology

In order to ascertain the extent and basic characteristics of non-registered PSTIs in Harare Province, systematic physical searches were undertaken during February 1997 in the following areas: (i) the city centre; (ii) three high density suburbs (Highfields, Mufakose, and Tafara); and (iii) Chitungwiza, which is a dormitory city for Harare and a separate district in the Province. Three research assistants visited all office and other buildings in central Harare. In the HDAs and Chitungwiza, they began their searches in shopping centres and then these were extended into the surrounding residential areas. In addition, all advertisements in the Herald, the national newspaper, selling 'tuition' services in the Harare area were scrutinised over a four month period (October and November 1996 and January and February 1997). All adverts where it seemed likely that the centre was not registered were followed up.

Given the illegal status of non-registered PSTIs, each research assistant (all three of whom were university students) either posed as a prospective student or as the sponsor of a prospective student. Once a centre had been located, they attempted to gather as much information about its activities as possible and, in particular, the type of training provided, tuition fees, facilities (number of classrooms, equipment, etc.), and staffing. However, only around a half of the centres visited allowed the prospective clients to inspect classrooms and other facilities.

4.4.2 The City Centre

A total of 37 non-registered PSTIs were discovered in the city centre. In early 1997, there were approximately 95 registered independent PSTIs in Harare. It would appear, therefore, that illegal centres comprise a sizeable segment of the total private sector training market.

Apart from three centres, the MOHE did not know of the existence of any of these PSTIs. Officials argue that with only eight inspectors for the entire country coupled with seriously inadequate travel and subsistence budgets, they are simply not in a position to police effectively PSTIs. Furthermore, the penalties for operating an unregistered centre were until recently very low (only Z$ 1000 in 1996) and have not, therefore, acted as any kind of deterrence.

Table 4.16 summarises the main characteristics of the non-registered PSTIs that were found. Two main types of training are provided- computing and clothing.

Computing: PSTIs specialising in computer training predominated, with 23 (62 per cent) offering training in this area. With just two exceptions, only short courses covering the most common software programmes were available. In common with the registered PSTIs, these courses were 8-20 hours in duration, normally undertaken in 1-2 hour sessions on consecutive days. Students were generally not examined and only received a certificate of attendance.

Table 4.14 : Summary characteristics of non-registered PSTIs in Harare central business district, early 1997

Type of training	Number found	% one classroom only	Average number of computers/ sewing machines	Students observed	% poor condition
Computing	23	76.5	5	1-12	30.8
Clothing	9	100.0	4	6-30	33.3
Hotel, tourism & catering	3	na	0	na	na
Commercial	2	100.0	0	na	0.0
Motor mechanics	1	0.0	-	70+	100.00

The scale of operations appeared to be generally quite limited. All premises are rented. Thirteen out of 17 (76.5 per cent) that could be properly inspected had only one, usually small teaching room. Four were in poor or very poor condition. Ten had three computers or less that are used for training purposes. Centres were visited during the day time. At eight centres, just one instructor was observed with only 2-3 students receiving instruction.

As noted earlier, the profit margins on short computer courses can be very high and, undoubtedly, it has been the prospect of earning such high returns that has attracted so many non-registered computing PSTIs into the market. However, most of these centres have not attracted large numbers of students mainly because of their small size and invisibility. In particular, it is difficult for them to market themselves widely because of high advertising costs coupled with restrictions imposed by the government-owned media on the placement of advertisements by non-registered PSTIs. In such circumstances, one would normally expect serious price-cutting to occur. Surprisingly, however, the course fees charged by the majority of these centres are in the same price range as registered PSTIs. Only the lower quartile fee is significantly lower (see table 4.13). While costs for both groups are likely to be quite similar (office rents in the city centre, instructor salaries, and cost of computers), with such high margins, there should still be considerable scope for non-registered centres to sell cheaper courses.

Clothing: The next largest group of non-registered PSTIs in the city centre are those providing training in dressmaking, knitting, and tailoring. A total of nine centres were found. They share a number of the same characteristics as the computing centres. They are all one-roomed, have 1-2 instructors, and the training is non-certified. However, unlike the backroom computer PSTIs, courses are longer in duration (6-12 months), students (who are overwhelmingly female) attend daily for at least 4-5 hours, and class sizes are considerably larger. The minimum and maximum numbers of students observed were 6 and 30 respectively, with a median class size of 14. On average, two students shared a sewing or knitting machine. The conditions at three (one-third) of the centres were poor with serious overcrowding.

Monthly tuition fees for the standard dressmaking and tailoring courses were Z$100-150, considerably cheaper than at registered centres. Knitting courses, however, cost twice as much.

Other training: Apart from computing and garment making courses, non-registered vocational training centres were operating in the following areas: hotel, tourism and catering (3 centres), commercial (2 centres), and motor mechanics (1 centre). The almost complete absence of commercial training provision is in striking contrast to its pre-eminent position among the registered PSTIs in Harare. This may be largely due to the nature of the clientele for commercial courses who are mainly better paid and educated individuals who expect reasonably high standards of training at properly accredited PSTIs.

Box 4 : Non-registered motor mechanics training

This centre was originally established in the mid-1960s as a charitable organisation by an African mechanic. It had premises in the industrial area and it was registered with the MOHE. However, the Centre was forced to relocate in 1985. New premises were eventually found in the city centre but, in view of its fairly high operating costs, the centre is now run for profit.

The facilities are seriously inadequate. The centre consists of one office and three tiny classrooms. There is no workshop nor any even an open area which can be used for demonstrations and student practicals. There are only very basic tools and other equipment with the result that the instruction is heavily theoretical. Given these poor facilities and equipment, the MOHE have refused to re-register the centre.

A one year 'pre-apprenticeship' course in motor vehicle mechanics is offered. There is a continuous intake with students attending for one hour per day, five days a week. With three full time instructors and a maximum seating capacity of around 70 places, maximum daily enrolment could be 740 students. Total student enrolment in 1996 was, in fact, 350 with 10 per cent drop out. The centre has its own end of year theoretical and practical examinations. Pass rates are 60-65 per cent.

Monthly tuition fees average Z$167, fractionally less than its sole competitor (Centre K). With annual operating costs of around Z$300,000 and total income of Z$690,000, profits were approximately Z$390,000, yielding a very healthy profit margin of 130 per cent.

However, with regard to training in the main manual trades, the pattern of provision between the registered and non-registered PSTIs is very similar. In early 1997, there was only one 'for

profit' PSTI in each group offering this type of training in Harare Province. And, in common with the registered PSTI, the quality of training offered at the non-registered centre (which also specialises in motor vehicle mechanics) is basic and relies on out-dated technologies (see Box 4). The expense of meeting workshop and equipment requirements stipulated by MOHE coupled with relatively limited demand for formal training (in particular for self employment) jointly explain the very limited private sector provision in the technical trades.

4.4.3 Highfield, Mufakose and Tafara

Three out of a total of 17 high density areas in Harare were surveyed. The HDAs (formerly known as 'locations' and 'townships' prior to Independence) are where the majority of the African working class reside and where most informal sector activities are located. One might expect, therefore, that a significant amount of non-registered training to have emerged in these areas.

Highfield, Mufakose and Tafara are fairly representative HDAs in terms of both population size and household characteristics. Highfield is the oldest and largest HDA, located contiguous with the main industrial area in the south west of city. Tafara, on the other hand, is considerably smaller and was only developed during the 1960s. Between them, these three HDAs had a resident population of 193,200 at the time of the 1992 population census. This is likely to have increased to around 225,000 by 1997. The distance between the three HDAs and the city centre is 5-10 miles.

In stark contrast to the large number of registered PSTIs in the city centre, only two registered PSTIs (both located in Highfield) were located in the three HDAs. One of these centres, a well established, church-based NGO, has been struggling to break even and enrolment growth at the only 'for-profit' registered PSTI has been less than 5 per cent per annum during the 1990s. Both have found it very hard to compete with the city centre PSTIs. Unless training courses are heavily subsidised, the bulk of the economically active population who remain in the HDAs during the day, namely the unemployed, informal sector workers and 'housewives', cannot afford to pay the tuition fees at registered PSTIs. The NGO training centre, in particular, is caught in the dilemma of being unable to cater either to the training needs of the poor or attract those able to afford the training that they can offer.

Table 4.15 : Summary characteristics of non-registered (clothing) PSTIs in Highfield, Mukakose and Tafara

		Type		Location		
Area	Number	For profit	NGO	Church	Commercial/ Backyard	House
Highfield	8	6	2	2	3	2
Mukakose	13	12	1	1	2	10
Tafara	9	7	2	2	0	7
Total	30	25	5	5	5	19
Chitungwiza	12	8	4	4	3	5

Table 4.15 summarises the numbers and other characteristics of the non-registered PSTIs that were found. What is particularly striking is that clothing was virtually the only kind of training

that is available in these three HDAs. Foundation College, a registered PSTI in Tafara, had up until the end of 1996 offered training in carpentry and motor mechanics but had decided to discontinue this training and concentrate on academic courses instead.

There are three types of providers offering training in dressmaking and knitting:

(i) **Churches**. Three church-based training centres account for over 80 per cent of enrolments in Mufakose and Tafara. The Church of the Assemblies of God (Zaoga) is particularly prominent. Tuition fees are low - less than Z$100 per month for up to 30 hours of instruction a week;

(ii) **For profit training centres in commercial premises.** (3 in Highfield and 2 in Mufakose). Four of these centres were located in poorly constructed buildings in the 'backyards' of shops and other commercial properties and enrolled 8-20 students. The remaining centre, Chivimbiso enrolled upwards of 400 students in daytime and evening classes in two, sparsely furnished and equipped rooms at a dilapidated church in Highfield. The tuition fees at the 'for profit' centres were also low.

(iii) **House-based**. In Tafara and Mufakose, most clothing training is undertaken in private houses. In Highfield, on the other hand, training is offered in only two houses. This may be because Highfield has more proper training centres. The sole (female) instructor is usually an experienced dressmaker or knitter who works from home and offers full time on the job training for normally 1-2 student for 3-6 months periods. In effect, therefore, this is a form of apprenticeship although monthly tuition fees are high (Z$250-300/month) compared with those charged by the more formal, non-registered PSTIs. About half the houses identified had a sign at their front gate advertising their training activities. The other trainers are almost completely invisible and recruit trainees solely by word of mouth. Two women visited only provide training at the student's house and, at another, the student brings her own knitting machine.

4.4.4 Chitungwiza

Chitungwiza is situated 20 kilometres south of Harare. According to the 1992 Population Census, the city had 275,000 residents which is slightly less than 20 per cent of the total population of Harare Province. Unofficially, Chitungwiza's population had reached half a million by 1997. The city has grown extremely rapidly since independence and serves as a dormitory town for workers who commute daily to the industrial and commercial areas of Harare. Chitungwiza occupies a relatively larger area and houses are generally much spacious than those typically found in the HDAs.

It can be observed in Table 4.16 that the pattern of private sector training provision in Chitungwiza is very similar to that found in the HDAs. Thus, among the 12 non-registered training establishments (with a total enrolment of around 550 students) that were located, dressmaking and/or knitting are offered at 10 of them (5 non-profit NGOs, 2 shop-based, and 3 house-based). Computing training is also available but on a very small scale at two houses.

Table 4.16 : Summary details of non-registered PSTIs located in Chitungwiza, 1996

Name	Course	Class-rooms	Instructors	Students observed	Fees/m	Duration (months)
Churches/NGOs						
1. St Theresa	Dressmaking	1	1	60	92-108	6-12
2. St Alois	Dressmaking	1	1	30	50	6
3. Chiysap	Various	na	9	88[a]	10	1-12
4. Zaoga	Dressmaking	na	na	100	na	6-12
Private - Commercial						
5. unknown	Dressmaking	1	1	120	55	12-20
6. Jesand	Dress/knitting	1	1	5	250	3
7. Modern School of Design, Cutting & Dressmaking	Dressmaking	1	2	17	55	6
House-based						
8. -	Dressmaking	2	1	60	53	6
9. -	Computing	1	1	3	300	1
10. LTS Computers	Computing	1	1	2	200	1
11. -	Knitting	1	1	2	200	3
12. -[b]	Dressmaking	1	1	1	50	na

[a] Total enrolment

[b] Training done at student's home

The Chitungwiza Integrated Youth Survival Alternative Project (CHIYSAP) is however an interesting example of an innovative approach to vocational training geared to self employment (see Box 5). This kind of community-based training is noticeably absent in the three survey HDAs.

Box 5: The Chitungwiza Integrated Youth Survival Alternative Project

CHIYSAP was established in 1992 in order to bring together unemployed youth and equip them with practical skills which could be used to start self-help income generating projects. Training linked to production units is now offered to over 85 individuals in motor mechanics, brushmaking, dressmaking, carpentry, soap-making, hairdressing, secretarial, and arts and drama. Initially, trainees were informally attached (and at no cost) to established enterprises in the Chitungwiza area and then imparted the skills they had acquired to new groups of trainees. CHIYSAP now has a total membership of 2500 but only 250 are actively involved in training and production activities. Members pay a registration fee of Z$10 and monthly subscriptions of Z$2. CHIYSAP also provides small loans to its members who are expected to operate on a profit basis whilst maintaining a bank balance equivalent to the initial cash injection.

CHAPTER 5

MANUFACTURING

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The main objectives of the surveys of manufacturing enterprises in Tanzania and Zimbabwe was to evaluate the changes in training policies and practices that had taken place during the 1990s. In Tanzania, it was decided to select enterprises from right across the manufacturing sector while in Zimbabwe, which has a much larger and more sophisticated industrial sector, a relatively more homogeneous group of enterprises from one sub-sector, metal and metal goods was selected.

5.2 TANZANIA

5.2.1 Survey design and methodology

A sample of 30 enterprises was selected from the most recent Directory of Industries which was compiled from information collected by the Tanzanian Bureau of Statistics in 1989. Two selection criteria were used namely - enterprise size in 1990 (proxied by the number employed in each enterprise) and location (the sample was equally divided between enterprises in Dar Es Salaam and Arusha and Moshi in Northern Tanzania). The original intention was to randomly select from each location, roughly equal numbers of large enterprises (with more than 500 workers) and small-medium enterprises (with less than 500 employees). In the event, 17 large and 13 small-medium enterprises were surveyed in the two survey locations (see Table 5.1).

Table 5.1 : Ownership and employment size profiles of survey enterprises, 1990 and 1997

	1990			1997		
Ownership category	Number	<500	>500	Number	<500	>500
Parastatals	16	6	10	6	4	2
Locally owned	9	5	4	10	9	1
Foreign owned	2	1	1	3	1	2
Joint ventures	3	1	2	11	8	3
Total	30	13	17	30	22	8

It can also be observed in Table 5.1 that both the ownership and size profiles among the 30 survey enterprises have changed dramatically during the 1990s. The government embarked on an ambitious privatisation programme in 1992 and, by 1997, over 250 state-owned enterprises had been divested. Among the survey enterprises, 10 out of the 16 parastatals were wholly or partially privatised during this period. With respect to employment, it is clear that there has been quite a dramatic reduction in the workforces of all but a handful of the survey enterprises as they have struggled to restructure in the face of increasingly intense import competition (see Table 5.2).

Table 5.2 : Overview of survey enterprises in Tanzania

Training response group	Date established	Ownership (per cent)			Main products	Employment			Change in productivity
		Public	Private local	Foreign		1990	1997	per cent change	
Increased significantly									
1	1980	100			Electrical engineering	2706	478	-58	500
2	1984	100			Coca cola brand of beverages	210	250	19	-16
3	1977			100	Safety matches, sisal pulp, salt, paper boards	781	750	-4	60
4	1977/1995	30		70	Transformers, switch gears, cookers	1997	186	-91	2233
5	1933	40		60	Beer and spirits	3900	1876	-52	255
6	1950	100			Industrial and medical gases, welding equipment and parts	135	130	-4	6
7	1968			100	Radio cassettes, dry cells, torches	450	536	19	-54
8	1963	40		60	Beer brewing	700	438	-37	1000
Increased									
9	1977		100		Leather products carvings and horn products	400	45	-89	35
10	1969	26		74	Tyres and tubes	650	360	-45	315
11	1965	100			Textiles and garments	1700	3500	106	75
12	1979	100			Radiators	130	100	-23	60
13	1984	30	70		Auto and machine parts fuel injectors	200	135	-33	20
14	1977	30		70	Cables and conductors	85	100	18	60
15	1965	49		51	Cotton fabrics, yarn	3000	1945	-35	+ve
16	1965		100		Plastic containers, pipes, films, caps	440	472	7	50
17	1966	49		51	Cigarettes				
No change									
18	1980	100			Wood products, furniture and fittings	540	257	-52	-17
19	1920	100			Coffee curing and warehousing	663	189	-71	190
20	1930	100			Sugar	4340	4950	14	10
21			100		Leather and textiles	559	363	-35	0
Declined									
22	1966		100		Textiles and garments	2706	478	-82	0
23	1979	100			Sisal and jute bags	770	84	-89	0
24	1983	100			Lather machines, wood working machines/drilling	189	115	-39	-71
25	1968	100			Farm implements	870	265	-70	60
Declined significantly									
26	1972		100		Particles board, door and window frames	500	374	-25	-2
27	1966	30	70		Printed products, books, stationery, ink production	342	294	14	-ve
28	1965	15		85	Corrugated boxes, multiwall bags, labels and paper	612	450	-26	-ve
29	1986			100	Cotton yarn	na			
30	1963	40		60	Galvanised corrugated iron sheets	181	196	8.3	-81

The median change in employment between 1990 and 1997 was -26 per cent. It is in this context, therefore, of major changes in ownership and management of manufacturing enterprises in Tanzania coupled with rapid downsizing of workforces that changes in training policies and practices must be analysed.

The sectoral breakdown among the survey enterprises is: 7 leather and textiles (23.3 per cent), 6 food and beverage (20.0 per cent), 9 engineering (30.0 per cent), 5 wood and paper (16.7 per cent) and 3 chemicals (10.0 per cent).

Interviews: Interviews based on a questionnaire were held with the manager in each survey enterprise who had overall responsibility for training. Each respondent was asked to provide qualitative and quantitative information on the changes that had occurred in enterprise training activities since 1990 as well as their views on and responses to changes in government training policies during this period.

All the enterprises selected for the survey agreed to cooperate and, while some managers were unable to furnish all of the data that was required (in particular on financial outlays and staff time committed to training activities), the interviews did generate sufficient information to be able to assess changes in training activities during the 1990s.

5.2.2 Overall Change in Training Provision

Table 5.2 shows that among the 30 survey enterprises, 17 (57 per cent) increased their training provision (with 27 per cent rating this increase as 'significant'), while 13 (43 per cent) indicated that there had been 'no change' (13 per cent), 'decline' (13 per cent) and 'significant decline' (17 per cent)

Positive Training Response: The reasons given by the 17 enterprises who increased their overall training efforts are presented in Table 5.3. Most of these enterprises stated that the main reasons for their positive training response related directly to the intensification of the process of economic liberalisation during the 1990s which has forced them to try to improve their competitiveness (both with respect to product quality and price) in both domestic and export markets. Nearly 90 per cent introduced new production technologies and 70 per cent introduced new management techniques (such as quality awareness, total quality management, team building, use of information technologies) which have required the rapid acquisition new knowledge and skills. 12 of the 17 enterprises have a strong commitment to exporting, of whom three are actively seeking ISO 9000 status.

It can be observed in Table 5.3 that least important factors have been changes in availability of both public and private training and the introduction of the (VETA) training levy.

Privatisation has clearly accelerated this process of modernisation. Multinational companies that have acquired controlling shares in large state owned enterprises have been able to utilise their own formal training facilities and other subsidiaries in Africa and elsewhere in the world for both off- and on-the-job training. Improvements in labour productivity among this group during the 1990s have

been very impressive (see Tables 5.2 and 5.4). This is particularly the case for those enterprises that 'increased significantly' their overall level of training.

Table 5.3 Impact of various factors affecting training among the positive response group (percentages)

Reasons	No impact	Minor impact	Moderate impact	Major impact
New management	23	18	6	53
New production technologies	6	6	29	59
Import competition	6	24	18	53
Commitment to exporting	6	18	24	53
Availability of public training	12	29	47	12
Availability of private training	12	59	35	6
Demand for training by employees	12	18	47	24
Involvement of employer organisation	47	12	41	0
General economic environment	0	0	35	65
Introduction of VETA levy	6	59	35	0

While the introduction of new technologies and management practices has clearly had a countervailing negative impact on training (mainly because the majority of enterprises in this group - 12 out of 17 - have significantly reduced the size of their workforces), on balance, the overall training response among this group of enterprises has been positive.

Table 5.4 : Median changes in employment and productivity by training change group (percentages)

Change in overall training group	Employment	Productivity
Increased significantly	-44	255
Increased	-33	60
No change	-52	5
Declined	-75	0
Declined significantly	-19	-ve

Zero or Negative Training Response: Enterprises which have not had a positive training response have generally been those with (i) serious capacity under-utilisation. This is particularly the case where the privatisation process has become very protracted which has had a highly adverse impact on both employment and production. Eight out of the nine enterprises where training declined were affected by privatisation; and (ii) continued reliance on simple or mature technologies that only require minimal skills to operate, maintain and repair.

Among the 30 per cent of enterprises where the overall level of training has declined, it is clear that very significant reductions in the workforce have been a key factor which, in turn, is a direct consequence of the failure of these enterprises to cope in the new policy environment. The median decline in employment among this group between 1990 and 1996 was -33 per cent with only one enterprise reporting a small increase in employment.

5.2.3 Resource Commitments

Most enterprise respondents could not provide precise estimates of the amount of staff time and financial resources devoted to training. In large part, this is due to the predominance of informal on the job training, especially in medium to smaller enterprises.

Trainers and In-House Training: Only 12 (40 per cent) out of the 30 survey enterprises employed full time trainers in 1996. Compared with the numbers of trainers employed in 1990, there had been no changes at seven enterprises, two had increased, but three had fewer trainers. However, among the 17 enterprises that did increase their overall training efforts, there was at least a 25 per cent increase in the amount of staff time devoted to training. In contrast, among those enterprises that had a negative training response, staff time allocated to training activities fell by 25-40 per cent between 1990 and 1996.

Financial Commitments: In real terms, enterprise funding for training had fallen very significantly during the 1990s. Among the eleven enterprises which provided adequate information, the median value for the change in financial outlays on training between 1990 and 1996 was -50 per cent. Only eight enterprises funded staff on external training courses in 1996. Thus, more training on-the-job by existing staff has accounted for most of the increased training effort rather than larger human and financial resource commitments for formal training courses, both in-house and at external training institutions.

By international standards, enterprise funding of training in Tanzania remains very low, both in absolute and relative terms. Among the minority of enterprises that do have explicit training budgets, total expenditure for external and in-house training for the median enterprise was T.Sh. 7 million in 1996 (US$14,900) and averaged T.Sh. 13,000 per employee (US$22.4). In countries such as Japan where training is accorded high priority by enterprises, training expenditures are typically 3-5 per cent of total turnover.

The extent to which survey enterprises have changed their reliance on public and private training institutions also indicates that, for the group as a whole, financial commitments for training have been falling during the 1990s. Only 30 per cent and 20 per cent of enterprises indicated that they had increased their reliance on public and private institutions respectively and that nearly half had reduced their reliance on public sector training centres and 40 per cent on private training centres. This is at a time when the VETA training levy was introduced (which is intended to promote formal training by enterprises at public training centres) and government began to encourage private sector training provision. The absence of any kind of rebate scheme for approved training courses has meant that enterprises have been unable to defray the costs of external training.

5.2.4 Overseas Training and Foreign Trainers

Less than half of the survey enterprises send their staff overseas for training. The numbers of overseas trainees were relatively small with the median enterprise only sending two employees in 1996. While 40 per cent of enterprises stated that their reliance on overseas training increased between 1990 and 1996, 33 per cent reported a decline. The withdrawal of government scholarships, development of local training capacity, and increased financial stringency were the most commonly cited reasons for reduced reliance on overseas training.

Long term expatriates with clearly defined training roles were employed at nine of the survey enterprises in 1996. Only four enterprises use foreigners on a shorter term basis (i.e. less than 3 month visits). Asked if they would like to employ more foreign staff if immigration controls were scrapped, only three enterprises stated that they would do so. Very high employment costs is the key constraint preventing enterprises relying more on foreign managerial and technical expertise. Most respondents rated foreign personnel as 'effective' or 'very effective' in their training roles.

5.2.5 The Role of Government

Positive and Negative Policies and Actions: As part of its socio-economic reforms, the Government has embarked on a wide range of policies and actions that have affected the delivery of training by both public and private sector providers. The survey of manufacturing enterprises asked respondents to give their views on which of these policies and actions since 1990 have been supportive of their training efforts and which have had a negative impact on training.

As can be observed in Table 5.6, the government policy to allow private sector training institutions to operate is regarded as having the most positive impact on enterprise training in the manufacturing sector, closely followed by the establishment of VETA and the Council for Technical Education and Training. These responses are somewhat surprising given that that only small minorities of survey enterprises stated that they had increased their reliance on either public or private training institutions since 1990. However, it may take time for enterprises to respond to these policy initiatives.

Table 5.5 : Positive and negative impacts of government policies and actions on training efforts among survey enterprises

Positive	per cent respondents	Negative	per cent respondents
• Allowing private sector training institutions to operate	96.6	• Introduction of cost-sharing measures	53.3
• Creation of VETA and NCTET	83.3	• Withdrawal of scholarships	43.3
• Privatisation programme and economic liberalisation	66.6	• Removal of government subsidies to public companies	20.0

Introduction of cost-sharing measures, the removal of scholarships and government subsidies to parastatals were the three policies/actions that were identified as having the most negative impact on enterprise training. In interviews with survey enterprises, it is clear however that there is considerable concern about the VETA levy. Most enterprises simply seen the levy as another unwelcome tax which has had no major on their training programmes and which acts as a disincentive to hire extra workers.

Desired Changes in Government Policies and Actions: Survey enterprises were asked to indicate which changes in government policies and/or actions are necessary to improve the quality and quantity of training. Table 5.6 summarises their responses with respect to 12 possible areas. Three areas stand out as being of particular importance, namely better staffing and facilities at technical colleges and more steps to promote in-house training. All survey enterprises indicated that in order to promote more in-house training the government should allow training expenses to be double deducted for tax purposes. Changes to the VETA levy, reform of the apprenticeship system, more support for overseas training, and more encouragement for private sector trainers were also identified as being important by large majorities of respondents. With respect to the training levy, the major changes that were proposed were (i) fixing a maximum amount that should be paid by any one enterprise; (ii) relating the levy benefits to the training services that are actually provided by VETA institutions; and (iii) the use of levy resources to develop in conjunction with VETA training courses that directly meet the priority training needs of enterprises.

Between them, the 30 survey enterprises employed 19,316 workers in 1997. However, only 10 of these enterprises sponsored 78 apprentices (0.4 per cent of total employment). It is clear, therefore, that the mainly artisan training provided by VETA has little relevance to employers in the manufacturing sector.

Table 5.6: Desired changes in government policies and other interventions (percentages)

Area of policy/action	Unimportant	Quite important	Very important
Change in ministerial responsibility	73.3	20.0	6.7
Creation of an autonomous training agency	16.7	50.0	33.3
Changes to VETA levy	20.0	53.3	26.7
Better staffing at technical colleges	0.0	16.7	83.3
Better facilities at technical colleges	0.0	10.0	90.0
Reform of apprenticeship system	23.3	30.0	46.7
More encouragement of private sector trainers	6.7	56.7	36.6
Steps to promote more in-house training	0.0	16.7	83.3
Expatriates	53.3	43.3	3.4
Overseas training	10.0	60.0	30.0
Double tax rebates on training expenses	0.0	30.0	70.0

5.3 ZIMBABWE

5.3.1 Survey design

A sample survey of metal and metal goods enterprises in Zimbabwe was undertaken in early-mid 1997. Thirty firms out of a total of 285 in the sub-sector were selected for investigation. Enterprises were classified as large (400+ employees), medium (100-399 employees) and small (less than 100 employees). The original intention was to randomly select 10 enterprises from each group. In the event, 27 firms agreed to be interviewed (6 large, 12 medium, and 9 small).

Table 5.7 shows that employment contracted among nearly one-third of the survey enterprises between 1990 and 1996 and remained unchanged among another 12 per cent of firms. Only four enterprises (14.8 per cent) were fully or partially foreign owned.

Table 5.7 Some characteristics of the sample firms

Firm	Main products	Date established	Ownership	Employment 1990	Employment 1996	Employment % change
1	steel & iron products	1948	parastatal	7000	3100	-56
2	steel pipes & tubes	-	local pvt	-	373	-
3	scrap metal, tow-bars	1964	local pvt	80	55	-31
4	civil engineering	1964	local pvt	-	550	-
5	padlocks, foundry	1962	foreign	60	200	233
6	plumbing items	1972	local pvt	150	180	20
7	irrigation equipment	1974	local pvt	7	23	229
8	steel tubes, furniture	1948	local pvt	140	100	-29
9	bolts, nuts, fasteners	1957	local pvt	375	210	-44
10	window/door frames	1911	local pvt	1700	1700	0
11	heavy structural steel	1930	local pvt	240	280	14
12	ladders, shelter huts	1994	local pvt	3	15	400
13	bush pumps, tools	1965	local pvt	102	102	0
14	general engineering	1945	local pvt	80	80	0
15	house boats, roof vents	1958	local pvt	200	100	-50
16	nails, welding rods	1986	local pvt	12	24	100
17	engineering work	1966	local pvt	50	84	68
18	architectural joinery	1951	local pvt	1300	850	-35
19	structural steel works	1987	local pvt	30	26	-13
20	air braking system	1972	local pvt	65	83	28
21	fabrication & erection	1982	local pvt	30	60	100
22	decorative light fitting	1960	local pvt	176	180	2
23	vehicle bodies	1985	joint venture	120	440	267
24	motor vehicles	1961	joint venture	580	772	33
25	exhausts, tubing jacks	1967	foreign	80	154	93
26	hydraulic hoists, axles	1957	local pvt	160	160	0
27	bicycles, wheelbarrows	1956	local pvt	230	150	-34

5.3.2 Overall Training Response

With respect to training, the sample as a whole can be divided in two broad groups, namely those that have responded positively to the new economic policy regime (17 firms) and those which have not (13 firms).

Positive Training Response: Almost two-thirds (63 per cent) of the sampled firms have implemented important changes in their training policies and practices since the start of ESAP. Most have been strongly motivated by a growing realisation that training plays a key role in improving product quality and service to clients which was seriously deficient during the 1980s. Interestingly 6 out of the 17 firms in this response group were seeking ISO 9000 accreditation at the time of the survey which has far reaching implications for the scope and intensity of their training activities.

While there have not been any widespread changes in the organisation, planning and management of the training function among these companies, identifiable training expenditures have increased very significantly. The median increase between 1990 and 1996 was 650 per cent in nominal terms (approximately 275 per cent in real terms). This translates into an average real rate of growth of 18.5 per cent per annum. There was little if any noticeable difference in the behaviour of these firms with respect to either size or type of ownership.

Table 5.8 summarises the importance of a variety of factors in stimulating increased levels of training since 1990. New management and new management practices have been particularly crucial with 82 per cent and 58 per cent of respondents stating that they had had a 'major impact' on their training efforts. New technology and changes in the general macroeconomic environment have also been relatively important. Surprisingly, higher commitment to exporting does not feature as a key factor. Nor were changes in the availability of public and private training provision rated as being important.

In general, expatriate managers and those local managers that had had some experience working outside Zimbabwe had a more positive approach to training than managers who have risen 'through the ranks' and have little or no exposure to overseas management practices. The dramatic impact that improved training can have is well illustrated by the experience of one particular company. A new managing director was appointed inn 1993 and, within the next two years, he recruited a completely new management team. A new training strategy has been adopted with the overall objective of ensuring that every employee becomes multi-skilled. Within a six month period, the company had trained every employee in quality awareness and the six Ms (defined as 'men, machines, management, markets, materials and money'). As a result of this new strategy, labour productivity has increased by a third, and exports grew from below 5 per cent of output in 1990 to around 10 per cent in 1996. Although the company has not sent employees overseas for training, senior management feel that this is necessary in order to keep abreast of developments elsewhere.

Table 5.8: Factors encouraging increased training among the metal goods enterprises (percentages)

Factor	No impact	Minor impact	Moderate impact	Major impact
Enterprise-specific				
New management	18	0	24	58
New management practices	12	0	6	82
New technology	41	18	0	41
Employee demand for training	71	18	6	6
Import competition	29	18	6	47
Commitment to exporting	59	18	12	12
Others				
General economic environment	18	6	18	58
Changes to ZIMDEF	76	12	12	0
Availability of public training provision	76	18	6	0
Availability of private training provision	59	6	18	18
Involvement of employer provision and other organisations	71	12	12	6

Negligible or Limited Training Responses: The remaining 10 (37 per cent) of firms surveyed have not appreciably increased the intensity of their training activities since 1991. The main reasons cited by respondents for this limited training response were: predominance of low skill jobs (40 per cent), experienced workers employed by the company for many years (30 per cent), machinery not changed (20 per cent), and poor performance of those who had been trained (10 per cent). Generally speaking, these companies stated that the economic reform programme has had fairly minimal impacts on their operations.

5.3.3 Training by Staff Category

Among the group of positive response companies, there appears to have been an intensification of training throughout their workforces. Generally speaking, managers and supervisors are mainly trained outside of the firm while skilled and semi-unskilled workers continue to be trained almost exclusively on the job. Most firms believe they are too small to be able to train managerial and supervisory staff in-house.

Reliance on external training providers has been particularly important among those firms that have attempted to introduce new management concepts such as 'quality at source' and team work. While most firms continue to believe that training workers exclusively on the job is most cost-effective, a small group of companies have started to send their shop floor workers on external training courses.

5.3.4 Local and Overseas Training

12 (40.7 per cent) out of the 27 firms surveyed use both public and private training institutions while 6 (22 per cent) and 1 (3.7 per cent) depend solely on private sector and public sector providers respectively. The remainder (29.6 per cent) rely solely on their own training efforts.

Fewer than the half of the firms surveyed (48.1 per cent) have indentured apprentices since 1990. Only 1 among the 10 firms that have not appreciably increased their training activities since 1990 have employed apprentices. Among the firms that do not have apprentices, one of the main reasons cited for this are the rigid, bureaucratic regulations and procedures for apprenticeship training coupled with pervasive concerns about the poor, deteriorating quality of formal off-the-job training at government training centres. Syllabi are also criticised as being very out-dated and instructors out of touch with the latest technological developments.

Only 3 firms (11.1 per cent) have sent any of their staff overseas for training and only 4 (14.8 per cent) firms have used foreign trainers to undertake short term training courses. Consequently, most firms remain very isolated from the most recent technological and related training developments overseas.

5.3.5 Views on Government Policies and Practices

Most respondents recognise that government VET policies and practices have a strong bearing on their own training activities. However, almost two-thirds of firms felt that government does very little to encourage firm-level training. All but one (albeit large) firm stated that the government should play a central role in encouraging firms to train more.

All but four of the 27 firms surveyed indicated that ZIMDEF has little impact on their training activities. Most simply regarded the training levy as a tax that has to be paid but there was widespread concern about the lack of transparency and accountability in the use of ZIMDEF funds.

Nearly two-thirds of the surveyed companies (63 per cent) indicated that certain government policies can be identified that definitely discourage them from undertaking more training. Principal among these are perceived difficulties in getting rid of employees who are considered to be incapable of absorbing new ideas and acquiring new skills. This is despite changes to the prevailing labour relations legislation which are intended to create flexible labour markets. Firms would like to replace their current workforce with more educated recruits who are widely perceived as being much easier to train.

Over 50 per cent of survey respondents stated that steps to provide in-house training, better staffing at colleges and change in ministerial responsibility were 'very important' in order to improve enterprise training (see Table 5.9). Most respondents felt that MOHE does not appreciate the critical importance of job related in-service training for increasing labour productivity. It is surprisingly, therefore, that only half thought that changes to ZIMDEF were 'very important'. Similarly, apprenticeship reform is not a priority for most enterprises nor is increased overseas training and greater reliance on expatriate training personnel.

Table 5.9: Relative importance of possible government interventions to improve training among metal goods enterprises

Possible changes	Unimportant	Quite important	Very important
Steps to promote in-house training	15	19	65
Better staffing at colleges	30	17	52
Change in ministerial responsibility	39	9	52
Changes to ZIMDEF	43	9	48
Creation of autonomous training agency	47	13	39
More encouragement of PSTIs	38	25	38
Increased use of foreign personnel	40	28	32
More overseas training	60	12	28
Apprenticeship reform	48	22	30
Better facilities at colleges	61	4	26

CHAPTER 6

TOURISM

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism is of vital importance for both the Tanzanian and Zimbabwean economies. In Tanzania, the tourism industry as a whole accounted for 7.5 per cent of GDP and more than 30 per cent of total export earnings in the mid 1990s. Direct employment in tourist enterprises (most notably, hotels/lodges and tour operators) stood at nearly 26,000 in 1995 (7 per cent of formal sector employment). However, since the late 1980s, the number of tourists visiting Tanzania has grown only very slowly - from 303,000 in 1990 to 326,000 in 1996. The 1997 Tourism Policy Document has set an ambitious target of 900,000 tourist arrivals by 2012 with income from tourism totalling US$400 million. It is clear, therefore, that the successful development of the tourist industry is an essential part of the overall process of economic restructuring in Tanzania.

In order to compete effectively in increasingly global markets, tourist enterprises must be able to offer competitive, high quality products for carefully targeted clienteles. As a skill-intensive, service industry, training has therefore a key role to play in ensuring that the requisite skills are continuously developed in a cost-effective manner. The centrality of human resource development has been consistently highlighted in the most recent tourist policy statements and plans which were published in 1991, 1994 and 1997. As the 1997 Tourism Policy states 'tourism education and training is one of the fundamental pillars of the development of a responsible tourism in Tanzania"(GOT, 1997:11).

In Zimbabwe, the tourism industry accounted for 5 per cent of GDP in 1996 and more than 25 per cent of total export earnings (only surpassed by tobacco exports) in 1997. Direct employment in tourist enterprises (most notably, hotels/lodges and tour operators) stood at around 100,000 in 1996 (8 per cent of formal sector employment). Since the early 1990s, the number of foreign tourists has grown extremely rapidly. By 2001, tourism's share of GDP is projected to double to 10 per cent.

6.2 TANZANIA

6.2.1 Survey Design and Methodology

Out of a total of 224 registered hotels and 212 tour operators in Tanzania, 73 per cent and 90 per cent are located in the Dar Es Salaam and Arusha Regions. Given this high geographical concentration, the tourism enterprise survey was confined to these two regions. A total of 23 enterprises - 14 hotels and 9 tour operators - were randomly selected (see Table 6.1). The senior manager in each enterprise who was responsible for training was interviewed using a slightly modified version of the questionnaire used for the manufacturing industry survey.

A mini survey was also undertaken of training institutions that specialise in providing long and/or short courses for the tourism personnel. In addition to the one government tourism training centre, four (out of a total of around 25) private sector training centres were randomly surveyed. Finally, senior officials responsible for human resource development in the Ministry of Tourism, the Tanzanian Tourist Board, and the Tanzania Association of Tour Operators (TATO) were also interviewed.

As can be observed in Table 6.1, most of the tour operators in the sample only started their businesses during the 1990s and employ fewer than 25 employees. These respondents were clearly unable, therefore, to discuss how their training policies and practices had changed since the late 1980s.

Table 6.1 : Key characteristics of the survey hotels and tour operators

Code	Location (region)	Date established	Number rooms	Ownership and management status	Employees 1990	Employees 1997	Employees per cent change
Hotels							
1	Arusha	1988	20	Private	70	110	57
2	Arusha	1979	408	Public	303	247	-18
3	Arusha	1968	192	JV (foreign)	256	250	-2
4	Arusha	1968	100	JV (foreign)	116	105	-9
5	Arusha	1972	75	JV (foreign)	80	100	25
6	Arusha	1967	-	JV (foreign)	50	54	8
7	Arusha	1968	-	JV (foreign)	34	34	0
8	Arusha	1968	-	JV (foreign)	46	54	17
9	DSM	1997	-	Private	-	320	-
10	DSM	1995	-	Private	-	374	-
11	DSM	1983	144	Private	270	216	-20
12	DSM	1964	198	Public	629	457	-27
13	Tanga	1978	25	Private	95	58	-39
14	Mwanza	1976	55	Private	156	104	-33
Tour operators							
1	Arusha	1986	-	Private	85	115	35
2	Arusha	1993	-	Private	-	15	-
3	Arusha	1993	-	Private	-	8	-
4	Arusha	1992	-	Private	10	160	1500
5	Arusha	1985	-	Private	7	15	114
6	Arusha	1969	-	Private	17	20	18
7	Arusha	1986	-	Private	12	22	83
8	Dar Es Salaam	1982	-	Private	20	20	0
9	Dar Es Salaam	1962	-	Private	250	276	10

Notes: All tour operators are privately owned
JV = joint venture

6.2.2 Pre-Adjustment Training Provision

Prior to economic liberalisation, the government exercised strong centralised control over the tourism industry in Tanzania. By the early 1980s, nearly one-half of all tourist hotels were government-owned. The Tanzanian Tourist Corporation (which was established soon after the Arusha Declaration in 1969) owned and managed 19 of the largest hotels and lodges and had overall responsibility for tourism promotion and marketing. The State Travel Services controlled up to 70 per cent of the tour operator market.

Multiple constraints (most notably, poor planning and management, chronic shortages of foreign exchanges, and very poor infrastructure) stifled the development of the tourism industry during this period and the overall quality of service provided by most hotels and tour operators was well below accepted international standards. Given these highly adverse operating conditions, the scope for improving product quality through training was limited. While government did recognise the need for systematic training activities as a whole not only lacked strategic direction, but were limited both in their scope and overall intensity.

Training for senior and middle managers had to be undertaken overseas but, for much of this period, sufficient donor funds were available to support this type of training (although many of the most senior management positions in the largest hotels were still occupied by expatriates) But, for most workers, once initial pre-employment training had been completed, virtually all other training was on-the-job.

6.2.3 Training Provision During Economic Liberalisation

Labour Productivity: As elsewhere, one of the key objectives of the economic liberalisation programme in Tanzania is to create new, powerful incentives that will provide the impetus for enterprises (particularly in the tradable goods and service sectors) to increase significantly their productivity and thereby become internationally competitive. Over 90 per cent of the hotel and tour operator who were surveyed stated that they have taken steps to improve labour productivity during the 1990s. Among the hotel group, over 70 per cent of these initiatives related directly to the provision of training whereas tour operators have focused more on improving pay and service conditions, particularly for more experienced personnel (see Table 6.2). However, despite these efforts, over one-third of hotel respondents did not know how productivity had changed since 1990, half indicated there had been no change, and 14 per cent stated that productivity had declined. None of the tour operators were able to say whether productivity had increased or not.

Training Policies and Practices: While hotels look mainly to improved staff training as a key modality for increasing service quality and overall productivity, only a small minority of the survey hotels have actually made major changes to their training policies and practices during the 1990s. In particular, only one hotel stated that a 'major change' had occurred in the amount of time it devoted to staff training since 1990 (see Table 6.3). The training response among tour operators has been even more muted - with only one firm indicating that more time is now devoted to training activities.

Table 6.2 : Main actions taken to improve worker productivity among survey tourism enterprises (percentages)

Action	Hotels	Tour operators
Formal in-house and on-the-job training	44	14
Off job training	29	11
Reimbursement of fees for private training undertaken by employees	4	0
Information sharing meetings	4	0
Investment in new technology	4	16
Improved supervision for better services	7	6
Improvement in remuneration	0	30
More participatory management	0	6
Re-employment and/or retention of experienced workers	4	7
Others	0	6

Table 6.3 : Degree of change in training policies and practices among surveyed tourist enterprises, 1990 – 1996 (percentages)

Levels of change	Hotels				Tour operators			
	Policy	Planning	Financing	Time allocation	Policy	Planning	Financing	Time allocation
No change	71	43	64	84	78	78	100	100
Limited change	14	36	29	8	22	22	22	0
Major change	15	21	7	8	0	0	0	0

Complacency is a major reason for the failure of most of the survey tourist enterprises to intensify their training efforts. Most believe that the services they provide are adequate and, as a consequence, little systematic efforts have been made to survey the responses of clients to services provided. In other words, the generally low consciousness of the need to train intensively stems from a failure to be strongly client-driven.

Table 6.4 : Real expenditure on training in 1996 as a percentage of 1990 expenditure

	1 – 25	26 – 50	51 – 75	76 – 100	100 – 125	126 - 150
Hotels	3	2	1	1	0	2

It proved to be especially difficult to obtain comprehensive information on financial outlays on training among survey respondents. Among the tour operators, this is mainly because most do not have separate budgets for training activities nor do they spend anything on formal, off-the-job training. Among the nine hotels for which financial data was forthcoming, funding of training declined very significantly in real terms between 1990 and 1996/97 at six of them (see Table 6.4). Most hotels refused to divulge any information on their total turnover, but it is clear that the absolute and relative size of training expenditures has remained fairly derisory. In 1996-97, total training costs at the survey hotels ranged from T.Sh. 50,000 to T.Sh. 6,000,000 and from T.Sh 40,000 to T.Sh 100,000 among the tour operators. However, the number of formal trainers did increase in four out of the eight hotels that did have dedicated trainers in 1996-97, remained unchanged at two hotels, and fell very appreciably at one hotel (which is about to be privatised).

Increased competition with lower margins has also negatively impacted on the level of training activities, particularly for mainly government hotels that have failed to modernise and are awaiting privatisation.

Training Intensity by Staff Category: The type and incidence of pre-employment and job-related training received by the four main categories of personnel employed by hotels and tour operators is summarised in Table 6.5. Among hotel managers, the paucity of university graduates is a particularly striking feature which, in part, is a reflection of the low status of jobs in the tourist sector among university graduates. Over 80 per cent of hotel managers have, however, undertaken diploma or certificate courses in hotel management prior to taking up employment in the industry. But, once in employment, it is very noticeable just how few (no more than 15 per cent) of hotel managers have attended either long or short formal training courses. Among tour operators, not one manager had benefited from courses of these kind. The lack of relevant occupational pre-employment training as well as formal job-related training once in employment among supervisors and skilled workers employed by both hotels and tour operators is also very apparent. Nearly three-quarters of all respondents stated that the government's formal apprenticeship scheme (managed by VETA) was almost totally irrelevant to their training needs.

Overseas Training and Foreign Trainers: Despite the continued lack of training capacity for senior and middle level managers in the tourism industry, only 42.8 per cent of the survey hotels sent their managers on training courses overseas in 1996. However, nearly two thirds of the hotels did indicate that overseas training had 'increased' or 'increased significantly' in importance since 1990 (see Table 6.6). Overseas training among tour operator managers remains virtually non-existent mainly because of the very small size of most companies coupled with their general reliance on recruiting appropriately qualified and experienced personnel as and when they are needed.

Table 6.5 : Education and training profiles by staff category

Staff Category	Pre-employment						Initial training			Subsequent training	
	Primary only	Secondary only	Certificate	Diploma	Degree	Unspecified	Orientation	On-the-job	Formal training	Short courses	Long courses
Hotels											
Managers	0.0	15.4	34.2	48.4	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	15.0	11.0	4.0
Supervisors	0.0	51.5	18.2	0.0	0.0	18.2	0.0	100.0	18.0	8.0	0.0
Skilled workers	6.4	93.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	80.0	20.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Unskilled	9.2	8.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Tour operators											
Managers	0.0	13.3	30.8	30.8	13.3	0.0	0.0	93.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Supervisors	0.0	50.0	19.2	15.4	15.4	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Skilled workers	0.0	96.9	2.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Unskilled	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Table 6.6 : Change in importance of overseas training and reliance on public and private (percentages)

	Decreased significantly		Decreased		No change		Increased		Increased significantly	
	H	TO	H	TO	H	TO	H	TO	H	TO
Importance of overseas training	7.1	0.0	21.4	0.0	7.1	100.0	35.7	0.0	28.6	0.0
Reliance on public sector training institutions	0.0	0.0	28.6	44.4	71.4	66.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Reliance on private sector training institutions	0.0	0.0	7.1	33.3	78.6	55.6	14.3	11.1	0.0	0.0

Note: H = hotels; TO = tour operators

Nearly 60 per cent of the survey hotels relied on overseas personnel for training activities. During 1996/97, seven out of these eight hotels had one long term expatriate whose training efforts were supplemented by one other short term (i.e. less than three months) trainer from overseas. The Sheraton Hotel in Dar Es Salaam is very much the exception since it relies very heavily on short-term foreign trainers. In 1996, for example, 13 of these trainers conducted training courses for local staff. While over 80 per cent of the hotel respondents rated overseas trainers as either 'effective' or 'very effective', only two hotels said they would rely more on overseas expertise if immigration controls were significantly relaxed. Very high employment costs were cited as the major reason for this.

Reliance on public and private training institutions: None of the survey enterprises had increased their reliance on public sector training institutions since 1990 and, for a significant minority (28.6 per cent hotels and 44.4 per cent tour operators), their level of reliance decreased (see Table 6.6). Most expressed little confidence in the capacity of VETA to deliver relevant, high quality training.

A few hotels and tour operators have increased their reliance on private training institutions, but 78.6 per cent of hotels and 55.6 per cent of tour operators indicated that there had been no change. One-third of tour operators stated that they had, in fact, reduced their reliance on private sector trainers. It is clear, therefore, that economic liberalisation has not resulted in any significant shift in enterprise demand for public and private sector training in the tourism industry.

6.2.4 Training Provision

The Hotel and Tourism Training Institute, Forodhani: The HTTI at Forodhani is the only public sector training institution for the tourist industry in Tanzania. The training offered is mainly for skilled hotel workers. The four core courses (food production, food and beverage, front office, and housekeeping) are nine months in duration. Three month refresher courses are also offered. The involvement of industry stakeholders in the planning and management of HTTI has declined since 1990 and there have been very few changes in the curriculum of HTTI's core courses during the 1990s. Links with local tourist enterprises have been adversely affected because of lack of

resources for students to undertake work attachments. To a large extent, therefore, training remains largely supply-driven and does not adequately cater for the training needs of the industry.

Enrolments are relatively small (only 157 in 1996), although they have doubled since 1990. Whereas female students comprised 47 per cent of total enrolments in 1990, by 1997 this had increased to 72 per cent. This is mainly because enrolment growth has been most rapid in food and catering courses which traditionally have always been female dominated. With ten full-time instructors, the staff-student ratio of 1:16 is relatively high. Staff turnover is minimal.

Like other public sector training institutions, HTTI has had to increase student fees during the 1990s in order to make up for rapidly declining government funding. By 1996, 60 per cent of HTTI's total income came from student fees which were T.Sh. 300,000 and T.Sh. 500,000 per course for day and boarding students respectively.

Course completion rates are over 95 per cent. The one exception is food production which, in 1996, had a completion rate of 83 per cent. Drop-outs are low because the majority of students are already in employment and are likely to lose their jobs if they fail to complete their training. However, HTTI management and instructors are increasingly concerned about the decline in the overall quality of student intakes as a result of lower educational standards in primary and secondary schools.

Private Sector Training Institutions: Four centres were randomly selected from 25 known hotel and tourism PSTIs. Two are fully registered with VETA, one has preliminary registration and one is unregistered. All four were established between 1994 and 1997. With the exception of Centre A, courses are between 6-24 months in duration and enrolments are very small (see Table 6.7). Apart from the tour guide and driver courses at Centre C, female students once again predominate.

Table 6.7 : Courses, enrolments and fees at the survey tourism training centres in the private sector

Centre	Courses	Duration (months)	Enrolments			Fees/year (T.Sh.)
			Male	Female	Total	
A	Hotel management and ticketing	12	12	20	32	220,000
B	Cookery, bakery, service reception	24	20	69	79	180,000
C	Tour guides and drivers	1.5	3.8	2	40	50,000
D	Food production, beverages	12	6	19	25	220,000

Except for Centre B, staff are poorly qualified and have little relevant employment experience. Only Centre A has any significant enterprise sponsorship of students attending its tour driver and guide short courses. There are no formal entry qualifications for most courses. Ability to pay is the

sole entry criterion. Consequently, the quality of the student intake is relatively poor. In particular, students are not fluent in English which is essential in the tourist industry. Most are unemployed school leavers. Given the relatively high fees charged by these centres, most students are from relatively well off families, living mainly in urban areas.

With all the centres awarding their own certificates, completion rates are very high. However, inadequate staffing and facilities coupled with low quality of student intakes means that the overall quality of graduates from these centres is generally poor. Respondents claimed however that over 75 per cent of their students find training-related employment in the tourism industry.

The survey PSTIs all stated that government was very unsupportive and that much more should be done to create a more enabling environment that encourages private sector training provision for the fast growing tourism industry. None had been inspected by VETA inspectors in the last two years. Two centres believe that they should benefit from the VETA training levy while the other two centres felt that government should ensure that hotel and tourism courses are properly certified and that trade testing should be improved significantly.

6.2.5 Strengths and Weaknesses of Government Policies and Practices

Enterprise respondents were asked to identify changes in government policies and/or actions since 1990 that had supported and undermined their efforts to improve the training of their staff. Their responses are summarised in Table 6.8. Over 40 per cent stated that they were unable to identify any changes in government policies/actions since 1990 that had supported their training efforts. While around a quarter of respondents did mention the positive impact of economic liberalisation, only 15.7 per cent of responses related to specific interventions to improve training provision (viz. a more enabling environment for PSTIs (10.5 per cent) and the availability of government scholarships (5.2 per cent)).

Table 6.8 : Summary of responses to the question 'What changes in government policies and/or actions since 1990 have supported and/or undermined your efforts to train staff?'

Supportive	per cent	Undermining	per cent
• None identified	42	• None identified	16
• General economic liberalisation/pro-private sector	26	• Lack of training strategy/poor training provision	47
• Allowing PSTIs to operate	11	• General government neglect of industry	6
• Improved labour mobility	5	• Uncontrolled private sector expansion	9
• Provision of scholarships	5	• Excessive licensing and other fees	9
• Others	11	• Others	13

In contrast, most respondents were able to cite government policies/actions that had undermined their training efforts during the 1990s. Nearly a half of all responses related to the lack of a clear government training strategy for the tourism industry as a whole. A major reason for the poor training response of tourism enterprises since the start of economic liberalisation is because of the paucity of good quality training opportunities in-country. Tackling this supply constraint is likely to lead, therefore, to a major increase in training activity. More generally, many respondents felt that there was not a sufficiently enabling environment that encourages them to train their staff in order to meet accepted international standards of service. While economic liberalisation has created a more conducive environment for private sector tourist development, there is a pervasive concern that, with respect to human resources development, government has become too laissez-faire with a corresponding lack of government control and strategic direction.

Table 6.9 : Percentage of respondents rating of possible government actions to improve training by tourism enterprises as "very important"

Suggested area of improvement/change	Hotels	Tour operators
Change in ministerial responsibility	14.3	11.1
Creation of an autonomous agency	28.6	22.2
Change tourism levy	7.1	22.2
Better staffing at training colleges	50.0	22.2
Better facilities at training colleges	35.7	22.2
Reform apprenticeship system	35.7	22.2
More encouragement PSTIs	44.3	11.1
Steps to promote in-house training	42.9	22.2
More expatriates	7.1	11.1
Increased overseas training	7.1	11.1

The importance attached by employers to improved training provision is reflected in their assessments of what changes in government policies and actions are needed in order to improve both the quality and quantity of training. As can be observed in Table 6.9, half of all hotel respondents identified the need to improve staffing at training colleges as "very important". Two other areas stand out, namely more encouragement of PSTIs and steps to promote in-house training. Interestingly, there is relatively little interest in organisational reform (in particular the creation of an autonomous training agency) or in employing more expatriates and sending staff overseas for training. Among tour operators, only 10-20 per cent of respondents identified any of these possible actions as being "very important". This is symptomatic of a pervasive lack of awareness of the importance of training among tour operators in Tanzania.

6.3 ZIMBABWE

6.3.1 Survey Design

Random samples of 15 hotels and 15 tour operators in Harare and Victoria Falls were selected. All 30 agreed to be interviewed although many respondents refused to provide what was considered to be commercially sensitive information, most notably turnover, productivity, occupancy rates and training budgets. All the enterprises selected were owned and managed by Zimbabwe nationals. The survey spanned the full range of large, medium and small hotels and tour operators. Five hotels had less than 100 employees, seven between 101 and 200, and three more than 200 employees. Seven of the tour operators had less than 10 staff and only two had more than 100 employees.

6.3.2 Training Responses

Only 40 per cent of the hotels surveyed and just 7 per cent of the tour operators indicated that they had significantly increased the level of their training activities since the start of ESAP in 1991. The type of training provided remained unchanged among all the tour operators with continued reliance on informal on the job training. However, the quality of supervisory staff was reported to have improved considerably with the increased availability of better trained recruits during the 1990s.

Increased competition and changes in the general economic environment are by far and away the most the most important factors that have encouraged increased training provision among tourism enterprises (see Table 6.10). In particular, training needs at the large five star hotels have increasingly been based on client comments on the service provided. In contrast to the metal goods industry in Zimbabwe, new management and the introduction of new technologies have had relatively minimal impact on the level and type of training provision among tourism enterprises. Government training policies and direct training provision have also been relatively unimportant in stimulating increased training activity.

6.3.3 Overseas Training and Foreign Trainers

Only one hotel (7 per cent of the sample) significantly increased the amount of overseas training undertaken by their managerial and skilled staff (in particular in international cuisine). Among tour operators, only one company sends staff overseas for training. The high costs of overseas training were cited by all respondents as being the key factor preventing them from relying more on overseas training.

Forty percent of the hotels and tour operators used foreign trainers in order to achieve specific training objectives. Duration of training (which was both on and off the job) ranged from one week to three months. Over 90 per cent of respondents ranked this training as 'effective' or 'very effective'.

6.3.4 Views on Government Training Policies and Practices

While the quality of training at the Hotel and Tourism School in Bulawayo is generally rated quite highly, the overwhelming view of survey respondents is that the government has failed to take a strong pro-active role in support of training that is essential for the future development of the tourism industry. As can be observed in Table 6.11, better facilities at public training centres and

steps to promote more in-house training are the two key areas of government intervention which survey respondents consider as particularly crucial.

Table 6.10 : Factors encouraging increased training among tourism enterprises (percentages)

		No impact	Minor impact	Moderate impact	Major impact
New management/ ownership	Hotels	80	0	20	0
	Tour operators	93	0	7	0
New equipment/ technologies	Hotels	73	7	20	0
	Tour operators	86	7	7	0
Introduction of new management practices	Hotels	46	27	20	7
	Tour operators	80	0	13	7
Increased competition	Hotels	33	0	13	54
	Tour operators	7	0	66	27
Better availability of public training	Hotels	87	0	0	13
	Tour operators	80	13	7	0
Better availability of private training	Hotels	93	0	7	0
	Tour operators	66	0	7	27
Increased demand for training by employees/ trade unions	Hotels	83	7	0	0
	Tour operators	100	0	0	0
Efforts of HARAZ ZATSO*	Hotels	66	0	27	7
	Tour operators	100	0	0	0
General economic environment	Hotels	20	0	20	60
	Tour operators	7	0	60	33
Change in government training policies	Hotels	93	7	0	0
	Tour operators	100	0	0	0

Notes: * Hotels and Restaurant Association of Zimbabwe/Zimbabwe Association of Tour Operators

Given that the Hotel and Tourism School has already been granted considerable organisational autonomy and none of the survey companies sponsor apprentices, it is not surprising that little importance is attached to changes in these areas. However, it is surprising that so few tourist enterprise (and especially hotels) do not consider reform of ZIMDEF to be a higher priority. Similarly, there is little interest in greater encouragement being given to private sector trainers. This is may be because the quality and relevance of current training in hotel and tourism services by

the private sector is generally not rated highly and consequently tourism enterprises are wary about the private sector playing a larger role.

Table 6.11: Relative importance of possible government interventions to improve training among tourism enterprises (percentages)

		Unimportant	Quite important	Very important
Creation of an autonomous training agency	Hotel	86	7	7
	Tour operators	67	26	7
Changes to ZIMDEF levy	Hotel	93	7	0
	Tour operators	53	20	27
Better staffing at technical colleges	Hotel	27	66	7
	Tour operators	53	47	0
Better facilities at technical colleges	Hotel	27	20	53
	Tour operators	40	60	0
Reform of the apprentice system	Hotel	100	0	0
	Tour operators	93	7	0
Encouragement of more private sector trainers	Hotel	93	7	0
	Tour operators	80	13	7
Promotion of more in-house training	Hotel	53	7	40
	Tour operators	67	26	7
Facilitation of expatriate trainers	Hotel	40	33	27
	Tour operators	33	67	0
Encouragement of overseas training	Hotel	33	33	33
	Tour operators	13	73	13

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

7.1 OVERVIEW

7.1.1. Tanzania

Comparing the VET system in Tanzania at the start of the economic reforms in 1986 and 12 years later in 1998, it is clear that major changes have occurred with respect to many aspects of VET provision. In particular, increased institutional autonomy coupled with increased cost recovery have made public sector training provision more demand-driven. A more enabling environment has also resulted in the rapid growth of for-profit private sector training centres. The VET Act created a new autonomous training agency financed by a training levy paid for by all registered enterprises. In the manufacturing sector, improved, more intensive training provision has played a critically important role in the restructuring process with impressive increases in labour productivity being recorded.

The depth of the fiscal crisis in Tanzania has been the major factor in forcing public sector training institutions to commercialise their training activities and ensuring that government gives them the autonomy to do so successfully. The role of donors has also been crucial in the overall process of VET reform. In particular, the high degree of donor-dependence of the NVTD was crucial in giving donors the necessary leverage to create VETA and introduce the training levy.

While very significant progress has been made in adjusting the VET system in order to meet the major skill requirements of a rapidly liberalising economy, it is equally clear that this process of adjustment is still far from complete and that, without very significant changes to current government and donor policies and practices, the skills that are vital for sustainable long term economic growth will not be forthcoming.

The major areas of concern are as follows:

- The creation of VETA and the current use of the training levy is unlikely to result in a demand-driven training system that responds efficiently and effectively to the training needs of enterprises, particularly in the formal sector.

- In the context of a low-income country such as Tanzania, the growth of private sector training provision will remain quite limited, at least in the short term. With no effective regulation of PSTIs, an unacceptably high proportion of the training provided is of a sub-standard quality.

- Faced with major cuts in government funding which have only been partially compensated for by increased cost recovery, enrolments at vocational training centres as well as the majority of the other ministry-based training centres have fallen during the 1990s and standards of training have also declined.

- While many enterprises have increased their level of training since the start of economic liberalisation, this response is not sufficient in order to attain the levels of labour productivity needed to become internationally competitive. The training response of tourist enterprises has been particularly weak.

- The government, strongly influenced by donors, is 'letting go' of the VET system too quickly which, given the limits to which VET provision can be privatised, will result in significantly lower levels of VET provision.

- The training needs of the poor, both in rural and urban areas, are not being adequately catered for. The poor cannot afford the course fees charged by for-profit PSTIs and public sector training intended to promote productive self-employment (particularly the post-primary technical centres) has collapsed. Not for profit, mainly church training centres are struggling to maintain current levels of provision in the face of declining financial support from donors, limited opportunities for income-generation, and growing competition from private secondary schools.

- Girls and women continue to be massively under-represented in all technical areas of training provision.

7.1.2 Zimbabwe

Important changes have also occurred in the VET system in Zimbabwe since the start of economic liberalisation in 1990. In particular, there has been very rapid growth in private sector training provision. Compared to Tanzania, however, there has been very little effort to reform public sector VET. In the face of large budget cuts, MOHE and most other ministry-based training centres have been unable to maintain training quality and the actual number of trainees has fallen considerably at a significant number of institutions.

As in Tanzania, it is equally clear that economic liberalisation on its own has not resulted in the creation of an effective and efficient demand-driven VET system. Public sector VET provision in Zimbabwe remains heavily supply-driven which is a consequence of centralised state control of training resources (especially the training levy), the general lack of interest and hence lack of involvement of other key stakeholders, and massive social demand for post-secondary VET. In striking contrast the situation in Tanzania, the government in Zimbabwe has not be prepared to relinquish its very tight control over the VET system. In many ways, this is surprising given the relatively large size and sophistication of the Zimbabwean economy which provides a much better basis for the creation of a genuine demand-driven training system.

There are also the same sets of concerns about the lack of training provision for the poor and the disadvantaged (particularly women and the disabled) and the uneven and, in overall terms, inadequate training response of enterprises.

The following discussion will briefly consider the main VET reforms that are still required in both countries in order to ensure that the skills necessary for successful economic and social development are forthcoming.

7.2 GOVERNANCE AND ORGANISATION

7.2.1 National Training Agency

The most important area of further reform in both countries is the creation of a properly functioning national training agency (NTA) which is truly national in scope and which, therefore, has a comprehensive mandate to facilitate skills development throughout the formal and informal sectors.

As the apex organisation in a truly national training system, the NTA should have overall responsibility for the planning and regulation of the VET system as a whole. In particular, the NTA should give government detailed advice on national training priorities and related (public) resource allocations. In order to establish a clear separation between the planning and funding of training and the actual provision of training activities, the NTA should not have direct responsibility for individual training institutions. It is for this reason that the national and regional vocational training centres in Tanzania should be separated from VETA and be funded and managed as autonomous training institutions within the Ministry of Labour.

The NTA itself should be an autonomous body. It should not be attached to any one ministry, but should be located in the Office of the President/Prime Minister. To be truly demand-driven, the governance structure of the NTA must be representative of all key stakeholders in the economy as a whole. Of overriding importance, employers must feel that they have a high degree of ownership otherwise it will be perceived as an essentially a government body that does not properly represent their interests and seek to meet their training needs. The same is true for training providers, both public and private. The interests of the poor and other disadvantaged groups must also be adequately represented. While government must also be represented especially in order to ensure that public resources are properly spent and accounted for, this does not mean that politicians and public servants should comprise a majority of the Board.

The experience of other countries shows that, while it is essential that power and resources over VET provision are devolved to employers and their organisations, government still has a critical role to play in ensuring that the requisite skills are available for sustainable long run growth. Relying entirely on the short term training demands from companies is likely to result in seriously sub-optimal provision. Consequently, the NTA must develop a comprehensive training strategy that, in particular, is able to identify the skills that are or will be needed in order to ensure the successful development of key sectors. Where these are not or are unlikely to be met by the private sector, it will be necessary to intervene.

7.2.2 Sectoralisation and Industry Lead Bodies

The governance and planning structures of the NTA need to be able to respond to the training needs of all the main economic sectors. Industry Training Committees should, therefore, to be established for all major industries or groups of related industries which have clear executive authority to plan and fund training programmes that meet the primary training needs

of their member enterprises. The larger industry training committees will need to be supported by their own professional staff.

As public funding for enterprise-related VET continues to fall, the training levy will become the key resource for both pre-employment and job-related training. How the levy is utilised by NTA is, therefore, of paramount importance. Assessing all the competing demands on scarce levy resources will require effective planning and well functioning board and industry committees that are seen to reach decisions about training priorities and related resource allocations on the basis of sound technical analysis and deliberations that are transparent and fair. More than anything else, it is the lack of transparency in use of training levy and the effective monopolisation by public training institutions of the levy itself that is objected to by employers in both Tanzania and Zimbabwe. Only by allowing enterprises from all industries to utilise levy funds as they deem appropriate will it be possible to establish credibility in VETA and achieve the much higher levels of VET that are essential if these economies are to thrive in the future. Each Industry Training Committee must, therefore, have control over a significant share of the levy resources contributed by its members. Every enterprise should be requested to provide regular information about its priority training needs and how these could be met. This can then be assessed by the appropriate Industrial Training Committee and its professional staff and decisions made on which training should be approved, taking into account industry training priorities and availability of resources. But it should be up to each enterprise to decide who should deliver the training.

For larger, industry-wide training programmes, a process of open tendering would allow training providers, both public and private, to compete for this business. In this way, all training providers can compete against each other on a more or less level playing field, unlike the situation now, where VETA training centres and other public sector providers get the lion's share of public training resources.

7.2.3 Public Sector Training Institutions

Accelerating the pace of organisational reform among public sector training institutions is a top priority in both countries. There is a small minority of training centres in each country that are financially well supported by their parent organisations and/or have managed to obtain sufficient external support from industry and aid donors. However, for the large majority of training centres, it is clear that the rapid deterioration in the level of financial support during the 1990s has meant that they have been unable to maintain training standards and that, in key areas, the size of the overall training effort has contracted sharply.

The most obvious solution to what amounts to a training crisis in the public sector is to secure much improved funding from parent ministries for both pre- and in-service training activities. However, given the severity of the fiscal crises in each country, it is unrealistic to expect any significant reversals in the funding situation for VET, at least in the foreseeable future. Other, more far reaching reforms are, therefore, needed.

There are three types of organisational reforms that could be pursued, namely divestiture, the public sector agency model, and internal restructuring.

Divestiture: Where there already exists good quality and extensive private sector training provision, one obvious option is for government to go out 'into the market' and purchase the training services it requires. Public sector training centres in these areas should, where possible, be sold off or managed as going concerns to private sector operators. Where this is not feasible, these centres should be closed down and, where appropriate, land, buildings and other assets should be sold.

Established tendering procedures can be used for larger training contracts in order to ensure transparency and maximise competition. Given the size of public sector training requirements in areas such as computing, secretarial, and general administration and management, ministries and parastatals should be able to secure relatively low prices for training courses.

The Agency Model: The second option is to create semi-autonomous public sector training agencies along the lines of the School of Mines and ZIPAM in Tanzania and Dar Es Salaam Technical College in Tanzania. Each agency would have their own governing boards with effective representation for all key stakeholders and full management autonomy to establish their own policies and practices with respect to all key management functions including financing and conditions of service. Since government would no longer directly fund these training centres, they will have to generate all their own income by selling their training services to both public and private sector clients. This type of reorganisation tends to work well in those areas of training that are directly or closely linked to particular industries or sectors (e.g. mining, tourism, horticulture, telecommunications) and/or there is considerable private sector demand.

Internal Restructuring: The third option is for public sector training centres to remain directly under the control of their parent ministry or parastatal, but for incentives to be created that will encourage greater financial self-reliance and greater efficiency. In particular, Treasury regulations concerning the authority to retain incomes earned from additional training and consultancy activities as well as production activities need to be comprehensively revised. Formulae can be devised that will ensure an appropriate division of income earned between trainers, the training centre and the Treasury. Given the low levels of motivation that prevail, unless training staff are given the opportunity to increase significantly their incomes, there is little or no likelihood that training provision can be improved. This type of restructuring is particularly appropriate for those types of training provision where the public sector is the main clientele (e.g. agriculture extension, nursing).

7.3 PLANNING AND RESEARCH

A demand-driven training system is more information-intensive than the old supply-driven systems that relied on simplistic manpower planning models. While it is obviously important to monitor employers' training needs, reliance on surveys alone will not generate the information that is needed to plan effectively and efficiently. Ultimately, giving employers themselves control over training resources and letting them decide (both individually and, where appropriate, as an industry as a whole) what training they wish their employees to undertake is the best guarantee that the system is demand-driven and obviates the need to conduct time-consuming and ultimately fairly ineffective training needs surveys. Having said this, data on the current status of labour markets for precisely defined occupational groups is essential but, given the rudimentary labour statistics in most developing countries, this will require an enormous planning effort by NTAs in order to

develop an operational training market information system. Developed countries do not have information system of this kind, so it seems unrealistic at this stage to expect countries such as Tanzania and Zimbabwe to develop one.

The best way forward is, therefore, to establish decentralised planning procedures that enable employers of all types to articulate their training needs, particularly with respect to job-related training for their workforce. Planning for pre-employment training will, of course, have to be done, but the temptation to focus too much of this type of training should be resisted. Planning capacity needs to be developed quickly in order to undertake rapid tracer surveys of appropriate cohorts of graduates of all types especially for those where there are signs that serious labour imbalances (either on the demand or supply side) exist. A lot more effort needs to be made to monitor what VET is actually being undertaken, especially by enterprises that take training seriously and also the for-profit private sector training centres because their training provision is clearly demand-driven (both in individuals and enterprises).

Strategic training needs clearly have to be catered for. However, it is important to recall that planning in the old VET system was driven by the perceived training needs of overly ambitious development strategies. While, therefore, it remains the responsibility of government to ensure that the necessary skills will be available in the future for activities that may not be in demand now, primary reliance should be placed on correctly interpreting current labour market signals for specific occupations and skills.

Between 25-30 percent of the working population in Zimbabwe and around 10 per cent in Tanzania are estimated to be infected with the AIDS virus. It is clear, therefore, that very careful thought needs to be given to how the training systems in these countries should respond to rapid increases in levels of attrition across the entire range of occupations.

7.4 CERTIFICATION AND ACCREDITATION

The VET qualification systems in Tanzania and, to a slightly lesser extent, Zimbabwe are out-dated and excessively segmented and therefore disjointed. The trade test system is particularly archaic and discredited. A national qualifications framework similar to one that has recently been introduced in South Africa and which is based on an unified, flexible system of qualifications that encourages individuals to improve their skills throughout their working lives and thus provides career-progression and the creation of a 'high skill–high participation' economy urgently needs to be introduced. The traditional professional–technician–artisan trichotomy no longer corresponds to the labour process of training providers in modern enterprises and institutional structure and qualification systems that perpetuate artificial occupational boundaries need to be replaced.

Accreditation is also another essential function of a national training agency. As was discussed in Chapter 2, neither country has the institutional capacity to register and inspect training providers in a timeous and professional manner, especially training outside its traditional areas of provision viz the traditional manual trades. Establishing this capacity quickly especially in the key growth industries (tourism, mining, financial services, etc.) is critical if the private sector is to develop properly. Some decentralisation of these functions may be possible for the more common areas of

training (computing, secretarial and the basic manual trades) but in small economies, a fairly high degree of centralisation is unavoidable for more specialist, industry-specific training.

7.5 TRAINING FOR THE POOR AND DISADVANTAGED

NTAs should take the lead in establishing a coherent strategy for training of microenterprise entrepreneurs who generally have a low perception of their training needs (especially in relation to other business priorities). However, properly targeted training can result in significant improvements in productivity and income earning capacities among these type of enterprises. Thus, on both equity and efficiency grounds, there is a strong case to be made for redistributing public resources for training towards poorer producers in both the rural and informal sectors. PSTIs, but especially NGOs, are well placed to provide relevant, usually low cost training.

Most microenterprises are not registered and, therefore, do not pay the training levy. However, they employ the bulk of workforce in Tanzania and government has a clear responsibility to support human resources development in this sector. One possible course of action is, therefore, the establishment of a Microenterprise Training Committee with its own professional support staff. Each NTA must decide how much of the training levy should be allocated to microenterprise training. A strongly pro-poor training strategy would certainly devote at least one-third of training levy contributions to help promote skill development among the poor.

Clearly, government and donors should provide additional funding for microenterprise training which, like the other industrial training committees, will need to institute competitive tendering for major training contracts. Since training on its own is rarely sufficient, the Microenterprise Training Committee will have to work with other agencies (credit, technical assistance) in order to ensure that the training provided is properly integrated in the right package of services and other inputs.

As noted earlier, women remain heavily under-represented at most public sector training centres in Tanzania and Zimbabwe. VETA has gone the furthest in introducing an effective affirmative action policy, but the share of women students at VETA training centres was still only around in 1997. With a comprehensive national mandate for VET, each NTA should be in a good position to introduce a range of affirmative action measures (in particular quotas and lower entry qualification requirements) that will result in significant increases in female enrolments.

7.6 PRIVATE SECTOR TRAINING PROVISION

7.6.1 Registration and Inspection

The current registration and subsequent inspection of PSTIs needs to be considerably strengthened in each country. Registration processes are unwieldy, lack rigour, and generally take far too long to complete. Once registered, PSTIs are rarely visited by the designated officials. There is no meaningful process of inspections that would ensure that minimum training standards are being maintained and that would provide professional advice and,

where necessary, resources to improve training provision. Large numbers of PSTIs continue to operate illegally in both countries.

On its own, the market is a poor regulator of private sector training mainly because the demand for training is so high and information about the costs and examination performance of PSTIs so scarce. Furthermore, most professional institutes and other examination bodies have no effective procedures for accreditation of local PSTIs.

A separate division of the NTA should have responsibility for monitoring and improving training standards in both public and private training institutions. Small regional teams also need to be established with the appropriate professional expertise to register, inspect and provide advice to a training institutions.

Concerted efforts need to made to control effectively non-registered PSTIs, especially those that are for-profit. There is also a significant amount of training by NGOs which is usually free. Nonetheless, it is still important that these activities are registered in some way and are monitored on a regular basis. At present, government and other major stakeholders know virtually nothing about the training activities of NGOs and are, therefore, unable to provide support for priority areas.

7.6.2 Market Information

Improving the quality and overall availability of information about training costs and examination performance of PSTIs is likely to be a very cost-effective measure for improving the quality of private sector training provision in Tanzania and particularly Zimbabwe. At present, training markets function very imperfectly because the relevant information needed by consumers to make informed choices about which course to take and which institution to attend is generally not available. It is important, therefore, that government takes the initiative and obliges PSTIs as well as public training institutions to provide at least annually information about the tuition fees, enrolments, and examination pass rates for courses that they offer.

7.6.3 Local and Overseas Courses

Economic liberalisation has dramatically opened up vocational training markets to foreign competition in Zimbabwe and, to a lesser extent, in Tanzania. Foreign courses and qualifications are strongly preferred by both individual and corporate clients of PSTIs in virtually all subject areas. It is entirely healthy that individuals and training institutions themselves are able to choose between the different training services of competing professional institutes and other examination bodies. Having to rely on one sub-standard qualification would be very undesirable.

7.6.4 Staff Development

Urgent action needs to be taken to improve the quality of instructors, both full and part-time, employed by PSTIs. Proprietors have little or no incentive to improve the subject knowledge and pedagogical skills of their staff. Turnover is very high and the majority of instructors are only part-time.

Effective inspections should identify the main areas where individual instructors need to improve their skills. It is important, therefore, that properly accredited, modular-based, short training courses are available that directly address the most common areas of skill deficiency. Contracts for training PSTI instructors should be awarded by the NTA on a competitive tender basis. When selecting PSTIs to undertake publicly funded training, strong preference should be given to training centres that have instructors who have completed these training of trainers courses.

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Department For International Development
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